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ABSTRACT

In this document separate articles deal with the following topics: recommendations for future British broadcasting policies that recently were proposed to the British Parliament by the Committee on the Future of Broadcasting; specific media goals set by the Swedish Committee on Broadcasting; communications policy making in Austria; a new broadcasting bill in the Netherlands; the conflict of interests of the media in the United States; a project to encourage the sharing of traditional technology with poor people in rural areas throughout the world; EURONET, an expanding computer network that will have host computers in many European countries; recent international discussions about broadcast satellites; the launching of the first European satellite; and the possibility of using the early Hollywood experience as a model for film and video production in developing countries. Short notes are also provided on broadcasting events in many different countries, including France, Canada, the Bahamas, Guinea, and Egypt. (GW)

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The Future is Already Here - Or has It been Delayed?

SOME YEARS AGO a futurologist put himself squarely in the present by stating that the future had already arrived: we only refuse to admit it, since – to use another observation in the same vein – we march into the future backwards with our faces turned to the past.

Looking at the Reports by the British and Swedish Committees on the future of broadcasting and at the recent changes in broadcast legislation in Belgium and the Netherlands, the impression is of Committee members and legislators having decided that the future will still take some time to arrive. The actual or proposed legislative changes seem mainly designed to confirm earlier patterns and decisions. The attention given by the two Committees to new technologies and services is minimal. A more fundamental issue is the absence of an overall perspective. Even the short chapter which the Swedish Report devotes to the interaction of radio and television with other media does not provide for a comprehensive view of communications.

But without such a view there can be no coherent policy. Often, TV broadcasting over a terrestrial network and TV broadcasting over satellites are put in separate compartments as if belonging to different species altogether. One of the major proposals of the UK Annan Committee concerns what is called *the* fourth TV channel in the UK. Yet the Committee was finishing its report at the same time as at the International Telecommunication Union satellite planning conference held earlier this year the UK delegation was one of the driving forces behind the move to achieve a plan for *five additional* TV channels per country; although there are no projects, not even a discussion, on how these might, could, should or will be used. In the Swedish case, there is a similar dichotomy: the Broadcasting Committee emphasises the need for decentralised, regional, TV patterns while the Nordic Council is pushing for joint Nordic satellite broadcasts.

According to which criteria or assumptions should such problems be tackled? Neither Report gives an answer. The possibility of contradictory plans or policies is not even considered.

There is more: the recent legislation and Committee proposals seem based on the assumption that broadcasting is still a basically national activity. How true is this in the late 1970s? For geographical and other reasons it might be relatively true about the UK, USA, USSR and certain other countries, but how true is it in Canada or on the continent of Europe where it now has become a regular practice to transport TV programmes received in the border areas to other regions for cable distribution? There have been complaints that this practice is probably illegal, possibly immoral and certainly destructive of national broadcasting. The argument was given short shift by the continentals who have been living with this situation for years and who are quite aware that transborder transmissions are often regarded as politically desirable and in any case politically unstoppable.

These issues also relate to "freedom of information" and "free flow", preferably in more than one direction. What about this "freedom" if the unregulated influx from outside undermines the economic and fiscal bases of national televisions systems. There are no hard or fast answers. In the International Telecommunication Union a number of countries have resisted a Luxembourg satellite beam with a coverage beyond what is technically unavoidable. In the United Nations, however, these same countries have maintained a very differently formulated attitude.

It might of course be possible and perhaps even advantageous to face the future with a certain incoherence – but as a result of a conscious decision, not by default. • E.W.P.

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EuroRadio for EEC Countries

A PROPOSAL for a European news radio service is gaining support in the UK, France and other EEC countries. First proposed by the BBC's External Broadcasting Services about four years ago, the service would broadcast news and comment in English, French and German and possibly Italian.

The BBC hope the service will start in time for the preparations for the European elections to be held late next year. Whether or not that deadline is met depends on the speed with which the main countries can reach agreement on the administrative arrangements, transmitters and frequencies, and programme content.

At present it seems likely that a managing body, consisting of representatives of each of the national broadcasting organisations, would work with a team of European journalists. This team would be based in London (presumably in Bush House, the headquarters of the BBC's External Services) but its remit and its audience would be the entire EEC population.

Its programmes would be broadcast directly throughout Europe. In addition certain national broadcasting organisations have indicated that they would like to record these 'European' programmes for re-transmission on their own national services.

A multi-national team has already completed several trial runs in both French and German for several days each.

The French Government is particularly interested. The Prime Minister Raymond Barre has spoken enthusiastically of the proposal as leading to a comprehensive European radio service.

Current plans favour a daily output of three transmissions of 30 or 45 minutes – at breakfast, midday and the early evening – seven days a week. In addition, the participating organisations will be able to use the network for one-off national broadcasts.

Many supporters of a united Europe will no doubt feel that the idea of a joint news and information service should have preceded the economic and industrial agreements, and that the establishment of such a service is long overdue.

Joint European news services are rare. The introduction of the monthly 'Europa' by 'Le Monde', 'La Stampa', 'The Times' and 'Die Welt' in 1973 (each issue is distributed inside the parent newspaper) has not been followed by other similar publications.

The idea of a joint broadcast news service cuts across the traditional practice of giving external or foreign broadcast services an explicit responsibility to present national news and developments in a favourable light.

The essence of an European service would be totally different. It would aim to provide a "European dimension" to all events whether in the listener's own area or in another EEC country.

In order to set up the service, the BBC is prepared to forego its own long-established External Broadcasting Services to France and Germany.

The cost in the first year is estimated at about £1.5 million, and the service expected to reach about two-thirds of the population of the EEC.

The start of EuroRadio would mean the ending of the BBC's existing French and German language services to Europe. In itself, this marks a significant break with tradition.

The decision would free money (about £700,000) and possibly some transmitters and other technical equipment for the new service.

More importantly, it would indicate the UK's willingness to forego its national voice in favour of joining in a European collection of voices. Similar decisions by other European countries would indicate a similar wish for collaboration.

Projection TV and Cable in France

A HIGHLY innovative experiment that combined cable transmission and projection TV took place in April in the Auvergne region of southern France. It involved eleven viewing-points and a mixed programme schedule ranging from basketball to Arabic-language films.

The three-week experiment was organised by the Société Francaise de Production et de Création Audiovisuelles (SFP, the French government production agency); Télédiffusion de France (TDF, the government transmission agency); and the telecommunications department of the Post Office.

SFP president Jean-Charles Edeline named the experiment "videotransmission" and described it as a unique combination of the benefits of both television and cinema.

The eleven viewing points were located in the city of Clermont-Ferrand and throughout the sparsely populated region of Auvergne. The choice was deliberately wide: three cinemas, the town hall, the army barracks, the university hospital and the regional administrative centre in Clermont-Ferrand; and four cinemas in nearby towns.

Each projection point was equipped with a projection TV unit (supplied by General Electric and Philips) which projected the electronic video signal on to a large screen.

The programmes were almost entirely aimed at special groups – including doctors, farmers, immigrants, lawyers, old people, sports fans and stamp collectors. Doctors saw programmes on cancer, blood transfusion, etc., while immigrants were offered original-language versions of Arabic, Spanish, Portuguese and Turkish films.

A few programmes featured well-known entertainers. The opening-night transmission was a live relay from the Paris Olympia music-hall.

All programmes were recorded in or transmitted live from Paris and delivered to Auvergne by cable or microwave through TDF's normal channels.

The cost of the entire experiment was estimated at over £1 million. Audiences at the viewing points paid about £1.20 for admission, and increased traffic through the cinemas brought in incidental revenue from the sale of refreshments and increased advertising rates.

It is too early to say whether the audiences that were attracted to this rather novel trial would sustain a permanent service. Auvergne was chosen partly because it is an isolated region with comparatively high figures for cinema attendances. The long-term effects both on films and television are extremely difficult to predict.

Canada Streamlines Telecommunications

A NEW Telecommunications Act has been proposed by the Canadian Federal Government. The Act is intended to streamline the federal regulation, and to make telecommunications more responsive both to new technologies and to the changing concerns of Canada's provinces.

The Act will replace the existing Broadcasting Act, the CRTC Act, the Radio Act and the Telegraphs Act, as well as those provisions of the Railway Act and the National Transportation Act which apply to telecommunications.

The Minister of Communications, Jeanne Sauvé described the Bill as "a milestone in the evolution of communications in Canada".

It is the second phase of the Federal Government's two-step legislative reform. Phase 1, which came into force on 1 April 1976, amalgamated the former Canadian Radio and Television Commission into one new regulatory body, the Canadian Radio-Television and Telecommunications Commission. The new body kept its predecessor's acronym – CRTC.

The significance of the new Bill does not lie in any proposed alternations to the substance of Canadian telecommunications but in its new framework and its new perspective of a national policy. It opens with a statement of national telecommunications policy, and gives 16 objectives covering systems, services, broadcasting, radiocommunications and research. The first objective is that telecommunications should "enrich and strengthen the cultural, political, social and economic fabric of Canada".

Two other novel features of the Bill are its provisions for a greater harmony between the communication objectives of the Federal Government and those of the provinces, and a new authority for the Governor in Council to issue the CRTC with policy directions on certain matters.

The contents of the Bill have been extensively discussed throughout Canada following Green Papers in 1973 and in 1975. The Federal Government hopes the Bill will be enacted with no amendments.

Quadrophonic Radio in UK and USA

THE BBC has started a year-long experiment in quadrophonic broadcasting. A new transmission system, called Matrix H, has been developed by the BBC's own engineers to be completely compatible with existing mono and stereo transmissions. Several European broadcasting organisations and the USA's Federal Communications Commission are considering the BBC system for their own use.

The experiment started on 30 April. Nine programmes were transmitted in the first week (mostly rock and classical music, with a few plays), followed by one programme a week for the rest of the year.

The BBC has chosen Matrix H after testing several other systems. One popular system, known as Discrete Quadrophony, broadcasts four separate signals for each of the four loudspeakers. The BBC's earlier experimental broadcasts made use of four channels (two from each two stereo networks) and the same technique was used in Holland and by a few US stations.

However, there are major difficulties in broadcasting four separate channels. It requires additional frequency space and power and greatly increases costs.

Most broadcasters have rejected the various discrete (ie, four-channel) systems, mainly because they waste frequencies. At the same time as the BBC has been developing Matrix H, CBS Inc. have introduced another matrix system called SQ.

CBS stress SQ's compatibility with existing studio and receiving equipment and its spatial high fidelity. The company feels that SQ gives the best combination "of the laws of physics and the characteristics of human perception."

However, the first quad broadcasts are likely to appeal mostly to hi-fi enthusiasts. Any wider appeal to people whose prime interest is in content – whether music or theatre – will have to wait on new methods of production and even on new kinds of writing and performance.

Bahamas Starts TV Service

THE BAHAMAS' first national television service started on 1 May. It is operated by the Broadcasting Corporation of the Bahamas. The BCB also runs the three national radio channels.

The new television service is being introduced in three phases over the next few years. It will be known as ZNS-TV following the title of the radio services, ZNS-1, 2 and 3. Phase I will cover Nassau and New Providence. Phase II will take in the Northern Islands and Phase III the southern region.

The new service is not the Bahamans' first chance to see television. Most of the islands in the north-west can receive US programmes from Florida and most households in Nassau and other large cities already have TV sets. People in Freeport in Grand Bahama who subscribe to the cable network can receive six channels from Miami. As a result, the Miami stations give special coverage to Bahaman affairs.

ZNS-TV will start with six hours daily (slightly more at weekends), of which one hour will be produced locally. The remainder will be mainly material bought from the USA and UK. At midday, two hours will be used for educational programming.

The NTSC colour standard is being used and almost all the studio and transmitting equipment was supplied and installed by RCA. The RCA factory at New Jersey also trained several Bahamas' engineers. In addition, twelve production staff attended a special three-month course organised by the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation in Toronto.

There is no licence fee for either radio or television. The government does collect a tax on imported TV and radio receivers in addition to the normal import duty, but this tax is paid into the general exchequer and does not directly finance broadcasting. The three radio stations are funded entirely by advertising (and are to that extent independent of government). But TV is financed entirely by government loan. •

Briefly

Guinea Starts TV

THE REPUBLIC of Guinea started regular TV services on 14 May, Independence Day. The facilities in the capital city of Conakry were supplied by the Libyan Arab People's Jamaheria for Guinea as part of Libya's aid programme and built by Marconi, who are also helping to train local staff.

Egypt Expands TV Coverage

THE EGYPTIAN Government has started a E. £35 million (£44 million) project to extend TV coverage to all parts of the country. It will concentrate on Channel One and, with the help of relay stations supplied by Thomson-CSF, hopes to ensure that all Egypt, as well as most neighbouring states, are within the reception area. Colour transmission on Channel One started in January.

Broadcasting Pay-TV

A BROADCAST Pay-TV channel started transmissions on 1 April in Los Angeles. It is claimed to be the world's first over-the-air Pay-TV service. The station, KBSC, plans to broadcast 2 hours every evening with the emphasis on movies and sports, but with some rock, opera, etc. The installation charge is $29.95 and the monthly subscription is $17.00.

Doctors Say TV is Health Hazard

THE CALIFORNIAN Medical Association has filed a court brief stating that TV is a health hazard. The 22,000 doctors base their claim on the recent court testimony of 3 adolescent girls and 1 adolescent boy who said their decision to rape a nine-year-old girl was influenced by a movie, 'Born Innocent', that was shown by NBC-affiliate, KRON. The San Francisco Superior Court rejected the original claim for damages brought against NBC and the owners of KRON on the grounds that the First Amendment gave broadcasters absolute immunity from civil liability for personal injuries arising out of programming. The decision is being appealed.

India Tests Satellites Again

INDIA's Satellite Telecommunications Experiments Project (STEP) started on 1 June. The two-year experiment will use a France/Germany Symphonie satellite to test various telecommunications systems in preparation for India's own Insat spacecraft which is planned for 1980. Five Earth satellite stations will be used, including two mobile ones to test links with remote regions.

Undersea Cables

A NEW cable-laying ship bought by Cable and Wireless for £3 million can lay a Transatlantic cable carrying 15,000 circuits in one operation. Each of its cables are more capacious than Intelsat's entire Atlantic link. Moreover, the ship, named Cable Venture, can lay a cable more quickly and more cheaply than a new space link can be put into operation. The ship does however have a maritime satellite system which enables it to lay or locate a cable with an accuracy of one ship's length. Its first commissions are expected to be in the Arab States and South East Asia.

New "Hot Line"

THE USA-USSR "hot line" has been switched to a new satellite system. Both countries have set up special satellite Earth stations and reserved exclusive satellite circuits.

Since its inception in 1963 the line's chain of undersea cables, radio links and landlines have been broken several times. A manhole fire in Baltimore; fishing trawlers; a bulldozer in Copenhagen; a farmer's tractor in Finland – all at different times have broken the primary line and thrown the service back on the secondary line.

The new system has two separate circuits. The two countries can use either one of the USSR's four Molnya satellites with an elliptical orbit, and an Intelsat satellite over the Atlantic.

Australia

The editor regrets that the article in the February issue on the Australian Green Report could have given an incorrect impression. The statement on the reaction of the broadcasters which was based on press reports should not be taken to include the ABC, as was stated. The Commission and the ABC management have made no public comment on the report

African Programme Exchange

THE UNION of African broadcasters has given its regional programme exchange centre a more active role in programme standards and international distribution. A committee of the Union of Radio and Television Organisations in Africa (URTNA) decided that although its Programme Exchange Centre's primary task was the efficient exchange of programmes within Africa, it should also concern itself with the development of better programmes, closer collaboration, and the worldwide distribution of African material.

The committee temporarily meets in the PEC's new offices in Nairobi. The offices have been made available by Voice of Kenya because URTNA cannot yet sustain its own facilities.

US Pay-TV Rules Overturned

THE US Federal Communications Commission and the National Association of Broadcasters have separately appealed against the decision by the Federal Court of Appeals in Washington on 25 March that the FCC's 1975 rules on Pay-TV are unconstitutional. The regulations that were described as improper include rules restricting the showing of movies between 3 and 10 years old. For various reasons, this rule virtually prevents Pay-TV showing first-run movies.

Earlier in March the same court ruled the FCC should become much stricter on cross-ownership and should order newspapers to divest themselves of ownership of broadcast stations in the same area.

Home Movies on TV

EIGHT-MILLIMETRE films will be able to be transferred to a Betamax cassette for about $25.00 at a new Sony facility to be set up in New Jersey, USA, later this year. The operation will be serviced by a nationwide network of retailers and is aimed at people who want to see their "home movies" on their own TV sets. For an additional fee, Sony will electronically enhance the films (or slides). So far, 30,000 Betamax home videocassette players have been sold in the USA since first introduced in December 1975.

The first Louis G Cowan Memorial Lecture in honour of one of IIC's founding Trustees will be given by Harold Lasswell during the IIC Annual Conference in Washington on September 13.

UK:
The Annan Report Asks for Diversity

ALL QUESTIONS of UK broadcasting have been given a new edge – and some utterly changed – by the long-awaited report of the Committee on the Future of Broadcasting.

The report was presented to Parliament on 23 March. Its 250,000 words – the result of three years work – provide an enormously rich and complex interpretation of British broadcasting.

The Committee was chaired by Lord Annan, Provost of University College, London. It was asked by the Home Secretary to investigate the future of broadcasting, including cable radio and television; to investigate new techniques; and to propose appropriate constitutional, organisational and financial arrangements. It was not asked to inquire into the BBC's External Services or the broadcasting situation in the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands.

It was also excluded from the various matters of electronic or print communication which are at the moment regarded as properly the concern of the Post Office or as part of the film industry or as the business of newspapers. Alongside the Annan Committee, all three sectors were being investigated by separate government committees or commissions and it was felt in some places that one or maybe two bodies would have been more appropriate. However, others argued that such wide-ranging committees would have had an impossible task both in gaining the necessary knowledge and in formulating practical policy.

The idea of a committee to investigate broadcasting (in the tradition of the Pilkington Committee of 1960/2) was vigorously discussed towards the end of the 1960s as the various assumptions and principles on which the BBC and ITV were operating and, indeed, the very concept of mass consensual broadcasting, were challenged in various ways by the public, by politicians and by people within and on the fringes of the broadcasting authorities.

Also in the sixties, several new technologies and services began to be offered and, in some cases, actually implemented, that were either qualitatively different extensions of traditional operations or novel and innovative experiments with no precedents and with no relevant guide-lines or criteria. Local radio, cable television, domestic videocassettes and broadcast satellites were the most talked-about, but there were many others. New technologies continued to appear. The two main UK versions of teletext, which were only theoretical possibilities when Lord Annan was first appointed, were already in operation by the time his Committee reported; and the third, the Post Office's Viewdata system was starting user trials.

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Austria: Moves Toward a National Policy 11
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A further reason for setting up the Committee was the existence of a fourth UHF television channel. Several groups, but particularly the Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA) and its franchise-holders, the ITV companies, wanted this valuable and scarce resource for their various purposes.

Lord Annan was first appointed to chair a Committee on the Future of Broadcasting in 1970. But a few month later the Labour government (always more keen than the Conservatives to investigate the workings of broadcasting) lost the General Election and it was not until they returned to power in 1974 that Lord Annan and his Committee were able to start their work.

The delay may have had some effect. While Annan was either in limbo or actually working, government felt impelled to postpone all major decisions about broadcasting and felt, also, they could not responsibly initiate any major changes or experiments. The publication of the report thus marks the end of seven years of relative passivity and inaction in the structural issues facing government and the broadcasting organisations (in contrast, on the programme side, producers and directors continued to innovate).

For that reason, the report was welcomed (even if some of its contents proved controversial). The decks were cleared for action.

Preparing the White Paper

The Report's 174 main recommendations and its countless other suggestions, admonitions, asides and obiter dicta were presented to Parliament on 23 March. The Home Secretary, who has the major cabinet responsibility for broadcasting and therefore the Annan Committee, has nominated a period of consultation between the date of publication and the beginning of July.

The Government will probably publish a White Paper in the late Autumn – although it may move straight to a Bill. Their decision in likely to be taken after the debate on the Report in the House of Commons which took place on 23 May. There was a parallel debate in the House of Lords earlier. Any new legislation is likely to take effect from July 1979, the date on which the existing Acts, Charters, etc, terminate.

This time-table depends on the Labour government remaining in power. It would be severely disrupted by a General Election – legislation on broadcasting generally rates rather low in British political priorities. Moreover, if the Conservative Party gains power, the report may be almost totally rejected in favour of the status quo and an ITV-type fourth channel.

The report opens with a substantial chapter on the role of broadcasting. It says: "Broadcasting has the unique quality of addressing the greater part of the population in their 19 million homes. The mass audience is at the heart of broadcasting. Broadcasting is not a suitable means of communi-

cation between small groups of people, because the number of channels is limited, the services are uniform over wide areas and because of the cost. It is not possible therefore to give everyone a right to broadcast. Broadcasting is not a form of mass conversation; broadcasting is a form of publishing."

Against this traditional concept, the report acknowledges that the mass audience "shows signs of crumbling". It gives as evidence the growth of teletext; the spread of home video-players; the spread of cable television ("the biggest threat to the mass audience"); demographic changes towards smaller households; the increasing number (10% in 1976) of households with two or more TV sets; and, above all, the audience's increasingly confident and articulate demands for a greater variety of topics, treated at different levels for different groups.

The report rejects the concept of using broadcasting as a form of social development: "Some people see broadcasting as a means of making society better – culturally, morally, socially and politically. Too often those who advocate such a policy seem to suppose that social and moral objectives could be formulated, agreed and then imposed on the broadcasters. No doubt they can in totalitarian countries. They cannot here. In our view, it is not a part of broadcasters' function to set themselves up as social engineers.

"We do not agree with those who have suggested that concern for good programmes is somehow misconceived and that the real issue is the control of broadcasting. We regard programmes as unquestionably the most important – and arguably the only – test of any broadcasting system. It is one of the achievements of British broadcasting that programmes are regarded as hand-made products, produced by individual craftsmen. The public expect programmes of high quality as a normal everyday service.

"Traditionally the State has set broadcasters their objectives. Their present role is to provide entertainment, information and education for large audiences. We would add to these a further objective, namely enrichment. To enlarge people's interests, to convey to them new choices and possibilities in life, this is what broadcasting ought to try to achieve. Programmes should create delight and insight."

Keeping the Authorities

The essence of UK broadcasting is the position of the Broadcasting Authorities within the sphere of government regulation and also, in a different sense but equally important, in a series of relationships with the public whom they serve. The Broadcasting Authorities are accountable – in a legal sense – to Parliament and – in a general sense – to the public and, although ultimately dependent on Government, are independent of the various Ministers and departments in their day-to-day business.

This crucial position the Annan Committee – with a few minor adjustments – decided to keep. In fact, they affirmed the historical position of the Broadcasting Authorities as the most suitable method of broadcasting, and they did so with very little qualification.

The Committee agreed that four principles were vital to the future of UK broadcasting: *accountability* through Parliament to a public which should be given more chance to make its voice heard; *diversity* of services; *flexibility* of structure; and *editorial independence.*

It proposed (30.2) the Broadcasting Authority as the institution best suited to its objectives: "How are these objectives to be attained? We maintain that the Broadcasting Authority is the institution best fitted to give effect to them. The Authorities are crucial to the structure we propose, and we endorse this institution as the best mediator between the broadcasters and the public. The Authorities play a dual role. They are the trustees for the public interest and should ensure that the broadcasters try to make more entertaining and interesting the lives of all sorts and conditions of men, women and children in whatever part of the United Kingdom. At the same time they must protect the broadcasters against those who seek, however honourably and seriously, to impose their vision of broadcasting upon the public. The Authorities have to see that the creators of programmes are not throttled, but can breathe.

"There should be other Authorities than the BBC and the IBA. Before 1955, broadcasting services in the United Kingdom were provided by the BBC, which operated as a regulated monopoly. In the 21 years since the opening of commercial broadcasting, the BBC and the IBA provided in competition a regulated duopoly. We believe that in future broadcasting services should be provided by establishing more Authorities in regulated diversity.

"Regulated diversity means that each Broadcasting Authority is responsible for giving its own type of service. They should not provide exactly the same services nor should they compete for exactly the same source of finance. That is why we recommend that local broadcasting be put under a new Authority, and that the fourth channel for the whole of the United Kingdom should not be allotted to either the BBC or the IBA but to another new Authority. We want the broadcasting industry to grow. But we do not want more of the same. There are enough programmes for the majority; and if new Authorities too compete for vast audiences, the quality of service on the existing channels will decline. What is needed now is programmes for the different minorities which add up to make the majority. That is why we want to expand both local radio, and eventually launch local television. That is why we want new ventures in educational broadcasting, above all for adults who need to retrain for new jobs to take up different careers. We want each service to be mixed, and we are opposed to, for instance, an educational channel, which would give only one type of service. That is why we want the fourth channel to be the host to different companies, different kinds of broadcasters, different kinds of programmes, some of which could not get on the air on any other channel."

The Committee soon decided that the existing Broadcasting Organisations, although appropriate, needed to be altered in several ways. They needed to fulfil more completely the four principles of accountability, diversity, flexibility and editorial independence. Secondly, they had to fit more neatly alongside the two proposed Authorities.

Praise and Criticism

The problem of the BBC engaged the Committee for a very long time and, in the end, it could not agree. The report opens

its analysis of the Corporation by acknowledging that "it is arguably the single most important cultural organisation in the nation" and praising its patronage of the arts; its faith in the individual; its reputation for integrity; and its international reputation.

Yet: "we sensed that all was not well with the BBC".

The dissaffection is attributed, above all, to changes brought on by the introduction of commercial television. After 1955, "it was no longer possible to treat broadcasting as setting exemplary standards and providing cultural guidance from which the individual could learn how to interpret and come to terms with his environment. Loyalty to the ideal of public service gave way to the concept of professionalism . . . This new spirit of professionalism and independence, allied as it was to the growing strength of trade unions within broadcasting after 1954, has altered the nature of administrative authority in the BBC. The new spirit is now much more managerial. It is concerned with economic management, with the strategy of planning and development, and with maintaining overt control over programmes by issuing codes of practice and insisting on referring upwards matters which the professional programme-makers themselves believe must be decided by their superiors.

"The BBC today sees itself as beleaguered, pressurised, lobbied and compelled to lobby. It dreads that single act of misjudgment by some insensitive producer which can damage it . . . In recent years there have been both criticism from outside the Corporation and discontent within. The BBC has been attacked for being too monolithic, too impervious to criticism from within, too thin-skinned and arrogant in its responses to criticism from without, and too inept in its dealings with pressure groups, Westminster and Whitehall. It is accused of being top-heavy in management, extravagant in its day-to-day operations, slow in decision-making, and of strangling itself by its own bureaucracy. It is important to keep such criticisms in perspective. What great organisations in the past ten years have not suffered upheavals as the country's economic fortunes have declined? But the charges cannot be brushed aside. The BBC seems to us to have shown some loss of nerve which is partly the cause and partly the result of this barrage of criticism. Its sense of direction has weakened".

In television, especially, the Committee's general impression was that "the overall standard of the BBC's television output was marginally declining . . . We felt the television service had lost that clear sense of direction which it had in days gone by". The Committee detected "some self-indulgence . . . superficiality of thought . . . even signs almost of contempt for the audience . . . a lack of clarity about the objective of the television service as a whole." The Corporation's TV news and current affairs were singled out for particularly strong criticism.

The most concrete proposals for reform concern the BBC's internal organisation. A substantial minority of the Committee wanted to separate BBC television and BBC radio. They felt that only such drastic surgery would cure the entire range of problems. "The BBC is already weakening seriously precisely because of its attempt to hold too broad a front". The conclusion is unavoidable: "All reorganisation schemes which stop short of separation are like drawing a knife through a bowl of marbles".

The majority, however, disagreed. They noted that the Committee had received "very little evidence advocating the separation of the radio from the television service" and a great deal of evidence supporting the existing unitary corporation – whose immense size does have distinct advantages both financially and politically.

The BBC, then, "should continue to be the main national instrument of broadcasting in the United Kingdom. It should have particular responsibility for providing national broadcasting services in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. It should not develop further its regional services in England but should produce programmes in the regions for its network services.

"The number of Governors should be reduced to nine (from 12) and the Board of Management should be collectively responsible to the Governors for management."

As expected, the Committee recommended the BBC continue to be financed by an annual licence fee (currently £18 for colour and £8 for black-and-white; the cheapest in Europe).

The decisions to remove all local radio from the BBC (and the IBA) is discussed below.

Apart from the question of local radio, the BBC has "survived" Annan's criticism and proposals moderately unscathed. The Committee did criticise the Corporation and sometimes with severity; but it made few suggestions and fewer formal recommendations for reform.

The impact of the entire Annan process will depend very much on the extent to which the BBC Board of Governors and senior management take upon themselves to remedy the Corporations's weaknesses. They may do very little; but Lord Annan has made it clear that he hopes for a more positive response.

Annan Stresses IBA's Regionalism

The Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA), the 15 regional ITV programmes companies and the 19 commercial radio companies were less strongly criticised – but may be more substantially affected.

The IBA and the TV companies were not, as they had fervently hoped, awarded the fourth channel. The IBA and the radio companies, in turn, suffered a surprising reverse. Annan proposed that all local radio be put under a new Local Broadcasting Authority.

Both these matters (which since the report's publication have become its most controversial proposals) are deal with in later sections. Here, it can be briefly noted that they both attracted very different receptions. The IBA and ITV companies were bitterly resentful (with some exceptions) about the loss of the fourth channel. But the Authority and the radio companies were fairly amenable (and the Authority's Director of Radio positively welcomed) the proposal for the commercial radio stations to be hived off.

The Report saw the IBA as having four main functions. "They are intended to control programme output, to control advertising, to select and appoint the programme companies and to construct and operate the transmitters for their services. In order to do all this the IBA have to hold a watching brief over the financial arrangements for their services."

The ITV system is essentially a regional one, whereas the BBC is essentially metropolitan. (There are, of course,

vigorous exceptions in both cases.) ITV's regional structure was not the result of legislation or any government action. The IBA's first Director General, Sir Robert Fraser, chose it for internal financial and managerial reasons. ITV's regionalism is now its main characteristic and strength. The current ITV structure includes five major networking companies (ATV, Granada, and Yorkshire; and, in London, Thames on weekdays and LWT on weekends), ten other regional companies and a national news service. All 15 companies produce roughly the same amount of local programmes. The five major companies have the additional business of producing almost all the programmes for the ITV networked schedule that constitutes the bulk of each station's transmissions.

The "regional" arguments was strongly argued by the IBA and ITV companies in their submissions to Annan, and the Committee decided to consolidate the regional theme as the channel's leit motif in a formal manner. It proposed therefore that the IBA should be re-named the Regional Television Authority and "should be responsible for a single service of regional television, though it should include high-quality networked programmes."

As for the Authority's four functions, the Report makes few proposals. On the delicate matter of the relationship between the Authority and the companies over the content of programmes (for which the Authority is ultimately responsible to Parliament), the Report recommended that the Authority's "present statutory powers and obligations in relation to programme content should be retained but the Authority should seek to intervene less frequently in the preparation of individual programmes".

The "Fourth" Channel

To these revamped Broadcasting Authorities the Annan Committee proposed the addition of two new Authorities; the Open Broadcasting Authority to run a new fourth channel; and a Local Broadcasting Authority to run local radio and local television.

The question of the "fourth" channel has intrigued UK broadcasters for many years. The UK currently has two VHF channels, which are used to transmit black-and-white BBC1 and ITV on 405 lines, and four UHF channels of which three transmit BBC1, BBC2 and ITV in colour on 625 lines. In 1971 the IBA and the ITV companies made a concerted bid for the fourth un-allocated UHF channel. Their arguments, however, did not convince the Home Office (the ITV companies also began to face economic difficulties which inhibited major expansion) and in the last few years there has grown up a consolidated body of opinion that this channel – a major and scarce natural resource – should be used for purposes other than to advance the existing institutions. In fact the opportunity of the fourth channel was a primary reason for the establishment of the Annan Committee.

The Committee fulfilled expectations by proposing a body, the Open Broadcasting Authority, which is to act as a "publisher" of programmes. It will not produce its own programmes; its main task will be the encouragement, scheduling and preparation for transmission of other people's programmes. In the words of the report, it will aim at "new ways of saying new things". To allow such diversity, the OBA will not have the same responsibilities for a balanced schedule as do the other Authorities. The OBA (and its suppliers) will be financed by advertising; (although spot ads will not be allowed) and sponsorship of a variety of different kinds and sources (including government agencies). It will be able to buy ITV programmes; and the ITV companies may be able to lease a block of time (presumably, prime-time) when they would be allowed to show programmes and collect advertising revenue. The relationship of ITV and the OBA is rather ill-defined.

The proposal for the OBA is a central part of the Annan Report (although the Report says the OBA should not be set up until the country's economic position improves). In contrast, the use of the fifth and sixth channels that will become available in the late 1980s, when the two VHF channels are re-engineered to provide UHF television, are hardly mentioned. The question of these two national channels is relegated to a technical section and, except for a brief statement that the channels might provide regional television, entirely treated as a technical matter. The Report makes no connection between the opportunities of the fourth channel and those of the fith and sixth.

Local Radio

Of all Annan's ideas, his proposal for a new Local Broadcasting Authority to run both the BBC's and IBA's current local radio stations is the most controversial (although probably, in the long run, not the most significant). The Committee was enthusiastic about local radio (and other forms of local broadcasting) but agreed that its institutional arrangements were "in a mess". It argued that local broadcasting (ie, non-national broadcasting) was a different animal from national broadcasting and therefore required "different keepers". It proposed therefore that the BBC should lose its 20 much-cherished local radio stations, and the IBA its 20, and a new Local Broadcasting Authority be set up to "take responsibility after 1979 for all local radio services". The IBA and its stations are acquiescent; but the BBC is not. BBC Chairman Sir Michael Swann said he "disagrees profoundly" with any proposal to move the BBC local radio stations, currently financed out of the licence fee and very much a part of the whole BBC edifice, into a novel and different structure where they will have to rely on advertising for revenue. He dismissed as irrelevant the Report's hopes that some stations should be run as non-profit trusts. This idea builds on the experiences of some UK cable stations and some other non-broadcasting ventures, as well as the successes of community radio in North America and elsewhere. Its appearance in the Report was welcomed by several UK organisations involved in local radio and television. [*The IIC published on 26 May a special study on non-profit radio as a contribution to the Annan debate.*]

The debate about local radio is essentially a debate about institutional control. The Committee's espousal of diversity, accountability and flexibility and its working out of these principles in terms of local broadcasting has been challenged strongly by the vested interests of the two existing Broadcasting Authorities.

Other important proposals are that the Authority should give high priority to Scotland and Wales (the BBC's first 60 stations do not include a single one in either area); that national networking, even of news, should not be allowed;

and that the OBA should hold public hearings.

On cable, which is also, it is proposed, to be run by the Local Broadcasting Authority, the Committee firmly rejected the idea of commercial exploitation and stressed instead the need for community services.

The Report treated cable in two distinct sections – under the headings of programmes and new techniques. The split is typical.

Given the Committee's commitment to diversity, accountability and flexibility, its conclusion on cable was predictable. The existing evidence from actual operations is ambiguous. The UK's experience with cable television (similarly to most European countries) has been shortlived, confusing and highly artificial. But one trend is clear. The five initial UK experiments (of which Swindon and Greenwich are the only ones still working) and Milton Keynes' new Channel 40 all point to the interest and energy of community video services. The Committee therefore argued that cable television should develop as a local community service.

The Authority recommends that the Local Broadcasting Authority should be run by seven to nine members, from different parts of the country, who should be appointed by the Home Secretary. Its headquarters should be outside London. Its budget is envisaged as about £4-5 million, with the main income coming from its licences to local radio stations and other bodies that come under its jurisdiction.

Committee Divided On Teletext

The Annan Report was published just as the BBC's and IBA's Ceefax and Oracle teletext services (which use a spare part of the broadcast UHF signal) were becoming operational, and the Post Office's more advanced Viewdata system (which uses the telephone network to provide two-way communication) was starting field trials. The Report describes all three "as having some of the characteristics both of broadcasting and telecommunications".

The Report has no suggestions and makes no proposals for the future of Viewdata, either in terms of its technical development or its institutional arrangements or its content.

On Ceefax and Oracle, it was divided. The Report proposes that the BBC and IBA, as now, provide Ceefax and Oracle "as an extension of their existing services". The Public Enquiry

But five members of the Committee (out of 16) argued that Ceefax and Oracle are publishing rather than broadcasting enterprises. They proposed that each service be operated by the BBC and the IBA but that the policy of each be decided by a small editorial board with an independent chairman.

The Committee did not appear to regard teletext as worth much attention.

In part, it was hamstrung by the existence of parallel committees on the press (the McPherson Commission) and the Post Office (the Carter Committee). It was aware that teletext is a hybrid technology and affects all three sectors. Notwithstanding that constraint, the Annan Report's treatment of teletext is disappointingly sparse and unimaginative.

The Report's grasp of satellite broadcasting is equally perfunctory. It notes (a few) current developments and recommends that the BBC, as the proposed "main instrument of national broadcasting" should carry the responsibilities for the transmission of satellite broadcasting services. The Report does not make clear whether this recommendation concerns the technical aspects or programmes.

Nowhere does the Report relate the possibilities of a broadcast satellite's five channels to the desired approach to the fourth channel and the discussion, which will take place in the next few years, on the re-engineering of the two VHF video channels.

The Question of Control

The Annan Committee faced numerous demands for a Broadcasting Commission, or a Broadcasting Council, that would act as the overall authority of broadcasting (probably replacing the BBC Governors and IBA Members) and regulate matters of programme standards; adjudicate complaints; carry out research; hold public enquiries into the performance of the Authorities; and generally provide Parliament and/or the Government with well-informed, influential and pointed information and advice on the entire range of broadcasting topics.

The establishment of such a body would have been a novel and extremely radical intervention in British broadcasting. It would have thoroughly changed the relationship between Parliament and the Broadcasting Authorities. The Committee was not sympathetic to such a dramatic alteration. It shrank from proposing such a body: "We are unaminous in believing that an executive Broadcasting Commission would be insufferable and we recommend that proposals for such a body be rejected". This wording, particularly the unusual stress on the Committee's unanimity, displays the extent of Committee's strength of feeling.

But the Committee did see the need for certain functions which at present are carried out by the Broadcasting Authorities themselves (with inevitable gaps and biases) or are not carried out at all. It saw a clear need for an independent Complaints Commission to replace the BBC's and IBA's internal committees. It proposed a new body (partly building on several existing committees) to examine technical matters. This Telecommunications Advisory Committee should "be the offical body to advise the Government on technical questions". And as the main plank in its platform of public accountability and control it proposed a Public Enquiry Board for Broadcasting. This PEB should be "responsible in the course of holding public hearings for taking a general view of broadcasting services in the public interest". It should hold public hearings every seven years on the way each Broadcasting Authority has discharged its responsibilities. The Board should be empowered to carry out other hearings and enquiries at the request of the Home Secretary or a Broadcasting Authority and should report its findings to the Home Secretary or to the Broadcasting Authorities, whichever is responsible for the subject of the enquiry". It should be noted that the PEB is not expected to make its entire findings publicly available, although it is expected to publish "reports" on them.

The proposal for a Public Enquiry Board has been generally seen as a minor part of the Annan Report. But several members of the Committee are adamant that this single proposal is the concrete cornerstone of the idea that the public should have more say in broadcasting and that therefore it is crucial to Annan's concept of how broadcasting should work. • J.A.H.

Sweden: Committee Sets Specific Media Goals

WHAT SHOULD BROADCASTING be used for? Which goals should be assigned to radio and television?

These are the basic issues discussed in the report of the Swedish Committee on Broadcasting which, with what looks like a nice sense of timing, made public its Report within days of the UK Annan Report.

The Committee was appointed in 1974 to make proposals for the future development of broadcasting activities. Its terms of reference stated that the basic policies that concern broadcasting in Sweden should not be changed: that is, freedom from commercial considerations; independence in relation to public authorities and interest groups; the obligation to strive for impartiality and balance; and a responsibility for freedom of information and expression.

There are a number of similarities between the UK and Sweden Reports, partly because they have to tackle similar questions of finance, organisation and programmes and, underlying all these, the question of the role of broadcasting in society. In both cases the concept of public service broadcasting is used as a starting point.

But the two Committees follow very different lines of thought. The Swedish approach does not only support the traditional recognition of the goals of broadcasting that mainly refer to the political functions of society (ie, the goal of information and the formation of opinion). It also re-affirms the responsibility for broadcasting as a free, independent and active cultural activity. This second part of broadcasting's mandate ties in with Sweden's public cultural policies as adopted by Parliament in 1974, and is given great importance in the Committee's Report.

The Swedish Committee therefore starts with the thought that broadcasting has been given a task by society. It states that in society's mandate to broadcasting are included certain guide-lines for how this activity is to be carried out, but stresses that broadcasting functions best if given an independent position.

According to the Report, the electronic media should contribute to the development of democracy by providing the citizens the information they require to take positions on political issues, and providing the elected representatives information on the entire range of diverse opinions held in society. The media should reflect a variety of different opinions and values in order to contribute to the formation of truly diverse public opinion; should review and check the activities of authorities, organisations, enterprises and other bodies that influence decisions which concern citizens; and should encourage communication within and between groups in society.

The Annan Report lists – apart from talent – four requisites for good broadcasting: flexibility, diversity, editorial independence and accountability.

In the Swedish report there is a similar list, but with a different emphasis. It favours independence and integrity; not diversity as such, but a richer and perhaps more dynamic variety of thoughts and activities, achieved by giving a high degree of autonomy to staff, editorial offices and programme units; a greater "transparency"; geographical and functional decentralisation; and the most rational and efficient use of available resources.

Interestingly enough, when the British Report discusses "access" the Swedish Report concentrates on "participation". It makes special mention of the requirement that the broadcasting system should give ample opportunities for independent and culturally active individuals and groups to participate in programmes, as one way of satisfying Sweden's constitutionally-provided freedom of expression.

The Committee feels that these requirements cannot be satisfied within the present organisational framework of one national broadcasting organisation with both a strong central management and largely independent programme units; in particular two competing television channels within the same organisation. While confirming the present relationships between the state and the broadcasting system the Committee proposes to remove from the Radio Act the provision which gives Sveriges Radio the exclusive right to decide which programmes are to be broadcast. This exclusive right has already become somewhat obsolete through the recent establishment of special corporations for local radio and for educational broadcasting.

Another reason for its removal is the Committee's favourable attitude to what it calls "special" radio and television: local transmissions undertaken by popular movements and by professional, political, religious and union organisations. Such broadcasting represents a departure from the basic principles that have conditioned broadcasting in Sweden almost since its inception; it is therefore proposed to carry out a further inquiry, supplemented with pilot projects, on this important innovation.

At an early stage, the Committee rejected the idea of separate organisations for programme production and programme transmission. The Committee seems then to have followed two main, partly contradictory, lines of reasoning. On the one hand, it showed a preference for a unitary national broadcasting organisation; but on the other hand it supports the principle that broadcasting activities should be carried out by a number of independent bodies.

Its final proposal confirms the trend towards decentralisation, although the Committee also re-affirms the position of the present national broadcasting organisation, Sveriges Radio. Thus the Committee agrees with the organisation of local radio in a special corporation (Swedish Local Radio Corporation) affiliated with Sveriges Radio, and all educational

broadcasting within another special corporation, which in the Committee's view should be independent of Sveriges Radio. The necessary coordination is to be set out in an agreement between the two bodies.

The main broadcasting activities will remain with Sveriges Radio. The Committee however proposes a re-organisation into three main programme units, each with considerable autonomy; one for radio, one for national television and one for regional television.

Regional Broadcasting

In the comments on the Committee's proposals so far made, this last proposal has attracted a great deal of attention and conflicting opinion. The "regional" programme unit would consist of a central news organisation in Stockholm and nine "TV regions" which would produce some programmes for national broadcasting and also some regional programmes, mainly news and current affairs, for regional transmission.

It has already been pointed out that this proposal must be seen in terms of two considerations. First, it is expensive and its success in material terms would depend on the necessary resources which are evaluated at some 90 million Swedish Crowns (£12 million) in investment and an increase of 126 million Crowns (£17 million) in annual operational costs. Second, the proposal raises questions about the *human* resources that are available in a small population of eight million people for such an extended and decentralised system of programme production.

The Committee proposes to maintain the present composition of the Board of Governors and emphasised the Board's responsibility for short- and long-term planning. A novelty is the proposal to set up nine regional "audience councils" with advisory functions which should be incorporated into Sveriges Radio's organisation.

No Advertisements

With regard to finance, the Committee's view is that broadcasting should be financed as now by licence fees, with government grants for educational and overseas broadcasting. Certain measures such as the right to make three-year plans, and automatic compensation for Sveriges Radio for increases in staff costs which depend on factors outside its control, are intended to increase the Corporation's independence.

The Committee also proposes an increase in transmission hours: on the present radio channels from 360 to 440 hours per week and in television transmission from 80 to 100 hours per week; and international negotiations for a frequency allocation to be used for a fourth radio channel. The overall increase in annual costs has been estimated at 225 million Swedish Crowns (£30 million) which could be covered with an increase of 20 Crowns (£2.60) on the colour television licence.

The report of the Committee will now be communicated for comments to every conceivable organisation and institution in the country which might be concerned – and most will decide they are! The comments should be received by Government by 1 October and only thereafter will Government present a bill to Parliament – which might be very different from what the Committee proposes. • E.W.P.

Austria: Moves Towards a National Policy

by Benno Signitzer, University of Salzburg

IT IS STILL too early to speak of a coherent *system* of communication policy in Austria. As a branch of public activity communications policy making is a novelty. But it has had an increasingly significant impact on the evolution of the Austrian media since the early 1970s.

While the international debate continues to run its course – most noticeably within such multilateral bodies as UNESCO and the Council of Europe – the Austrian Government has already begun to implement some salient policy proposals.

The observer may be struck, in fact, by a seemingly paradoxical phenomenon. While the level of the communication policy *debate* seems to be considerably lower in Austria than in comparable countries, the degree of the actual *implementation* of policy appears to be further advanced. Aphoristically (and, therefore, superficially), one could say: Others talk, Austrians do – that is, pass laws.

The low level of Austria's public debate is partly the result of the virtual absence of an intellectual infrastructure within which policy could be discussed and prepared. There are but two University Departments of Mass Communication that involve themselves in policy issues (and that only recently). There are no journals of communication policy research. The basic data of the Austrian media system have only very recently been collected and categorised (in a report by the Department of Mass Communication of the University of Salzburg, to be published in September 1977). And a comprehensive annotated media bibliography as well as research documentation are only now being established (they will be published in 1978).

The relatively high degree of policy implementation – surprising in the light of these "infrastructural" shortcomings – is partly due to the fact that certain specifics of Austria's media developments have created a measure of consensus that "*something* needs to be done". Furthermore, the stability of the political situation – with the ruling Socialist Party holding an absolute majority of seats in Parliament since 1971 – has produced a climate conducive to government intervention in all areas of public policy.

A Typical Framework

Most of the more salient features of the development of the mass media typically found in industrialised countries in the 1970s are apparent in Austria.

They include the concentration of press ownership; the financial crisis of publicly corporated broadcasting entities; the increasing questioning of the monopoly of broadcasting both by advocates of privately organised systems and by the various societal groupings that are disenchanted with the performance of the Austrian Broadcasting Corporation; the implications of the rise of new communication technology (CATV, video) on traditional media systems; and the

dependency of substantial sectors on both foreign hardware and software.

Concentration in the Press

An alarming degree of press concentration – the two largest daily newspapers control 55% of the total circulation – combined with enormous economic pressures on the smaller press, has led to the installing of a system of government subsidies to the daily and weekly press currently running at some £8.75 million a year.

Provincial government, too, is devising several procedures of support. The periodical press – including journals of scholarship and opinion – receives government subsidies on the basis of a 1972 law on civic education.

The Electronic Media

The Austrian Broadcasting Corporation (Oesterreichischer Rundfunk, or ORF) has been the subject of intense policy debate for the past fifteen years. In 1964, some 800,000 Austrians signed a petition to keep the ORF independent from partisan influence and to limit its advertising time. This so-called "Volksbegehren" (a kind of popular referendum based on the Federal Constitituon, which enables the people to have a direct impact on the legislative process) was strongly supported by the independent newspapers which feared ORF's competition for advertising revenues.

The "Volksbegehren" led to the Broadcasting Act of 1966 which was passed by the then-Conservative (OeVP) majority in Parliament. When the Socialists gained power in the early 1970s they introduced the "reform of the reform" of the ORF which, they contended, had swung too far to the right under the former general manager Gerd Bacher. Their new Broadcasting Act of July 10 1974 restructured the ORF so that power was decentralised. The general manager lost most of his influence over programming, and the two TV channels were organised as independent entities.

The complementary "Constitutional Law on the Independence of Broadcasting" defines broadcasting in a very comprehensive way to include not only the wireless transmission of programmes but also their transmission via cable. All broadcasting is put under federal jurisdiction. In all circumstances, and in all programmes, impartiality must prevail. The disparity of views must be taken into consideration and the range of programmes must be balanced.

Internal Press Freedom

The monopoly of the ORF, as well as several tendencies towards monopolistic structures in the newspaper industry (in addition to the above-mentioned national concentration, most provincial newspapers hold near-monopolies in their regions), has raised the question of internal press freedom. As a result, Editors' Statutes (Redaktionsstatuten) have been installed in the major newspapers and the ORF. They are designed to ensure that editors and journalists are insulated from direct pressures by managers and owners. According to the Statutes, journalists may refuse assignments that run counter to their personal beliefs and/or the standards of professional conduct. Such provisions are laid down in the ORF Act of 1974 and they are included in the draft bill for a new comprehensive law on the Media which is expected to be discussed by parliamentary committee this Autumn. The difference is that the current Editors' Statutes have been set up voluntarily and in cooperation between media management and journalists while the new law on the Media would make them compulsory. Meanwhile, the concept is still being rather violently opposed by the newspaper publishers who view it as an intrusion into their property rights as owners of the press.

Another major issue in the current debate on communication policy is the legal status of free-lancers – especially those working for the ORF. Full-time journalists are fairly well integrated into the network of social welfare that has been established for all employees, but freelances have long felt underprivileged. Their concern has increased as, with financial problems mounting (especially in the ORF), the media have begun to increasingly rely on free-lancers who can be treated on the basis of "hire and fire". They are now reacting, however, by demanding an increased measure of social and job security, and their considerable clout should enable them to win some mutually acceptable compromise.

Preparing for a Policy

The increased awareness of the need for a more comprehensive approach to communication policy has led to some embyronic forms of its institutionalisation. The ORF, the Austrian Newspaper Publishers Association and the Journalists Union are in the process of making their structures more flexible and more responsive to the challenges and opportunities of communication policy. The political parties and other societal institutions such as the churches, trade unions and chambers of commerce are setting up media committees and appointing media "spokesmen".

Ever more groups feel that they should have some measure of influence over the making of communication policy. The government agencies dealing with media are still scattered in various departments, but some kind of conceptual framework appears to be emerging slowly, albeit largely on an ad hoc basis – some legislation here, some subsidies and promotional effort there.

Characteristically, there is still no comprehensive approach to a policy on cable communication. The whole range of the political spectrum and many special interest groups, including the ORF, are currently discussing the implications of this new technology, and staking their claims. The same, although to a lesser extent, is true for the emerging medium of video. However, a comprehensive governmental approach is lacking: there are no objective or scholarly feasibility studies, no reliable data basis, no evaluation of the implications.

It is at this point that the above-mentioned absence of the necessary intellectual infrastructure may lead to serious drawbacks. In the long run, policy without research will turn counter-productive. Intuition, however necessary at the beginning of new approaches to the ordering of the role of media in the societal context, cannot be enough. Although it is this writer's opinion that Austria has not been badly served by its communication policies in the past five years, a more "scientific approach" should be chosen in the future. Otherwise, the high degree of consensus and legitimacy that has been of great benefit in the past, may be put in jeopardy. •

Netherlands: Background to the Broadcasting Bill

THE INSTINCT FOR democracy which has always been the touchstone of Dutch broadcasting may be creating something of a delay to current attempts to amend the 1967 Broadcasting Act. The new Bill was introduced earlier this year. In order to understand its arguments, and the various reactions, a brief background is necessary.

Broadcasting in the Netherlands is characterised by unique structures founded on a pluralistic concept of democracy. Under the 1967 Broadcasting Act, which came into full operation in May 1969, broadcasting organisations "qualify" in various ways for transmission time, one qualification being how many paying members they have. To belong to Category A, which is awarded the largest percentage of broadcasting time, an organisation has to have at least 400,000 members. (All members must also have paid their tv/radio licence fee). There is no organisation in Category B at present (requirement at least 250,000 members) and to qualify for 'Category C' an organisation must have at least 100,000 members. A major requirement apart from membership is the ability and intention of the broadcasting organisation to satisfy cultural, religious or spiritual needs which are not otherwise adequately provided for in broadcasting. Organisations which prove that they fulfill this need and whose membership is not less than 40,000 can qualify for broadcasting time as "candidate organisations".

There are at present eight broadcasting organisations (AVRO, KRO, NCRV, VARA, TROS, VPRO, EO, VOO), three religious broadcasting organisations (IKOR, CVK, RKK) two educational broadcasting organisations (TELEAC and NOT), and one advertising foundation, STER. All operate in conjunction with the NOS (Nederlandse Omroep Stichting, or the Netherlands Broadcasting Foundation).

The NOS is basically a co-operative body, responsible for radio and television as a whole. It not only produces its own radio and television programmes but also co-ordinates the transmissions of all other broadcasting organisations, provides all the facilities required for productions by broadcasting organisations, concludes collective employment contracts and represents Dutch radio and television internationally. The overall broadcasting authority is the Minister of Culture, Recreation and Social Welfare, and the Minister of Transport and Waterways is responsible for the State-owned Post, Telegraph and Telephone services (PTT).

Pluralism and Competition

Pluralism in Dutch broadcasting has its roots in the ways in which, from the nineteenth century onwards, Dutch society organised itself into competing pressure groups – originally Catholic, Calvinist and Liberal – for their own separate institutions such as schools and universities. By the 1920s these groups (based mainly on religious and/or philosophical grounds) had their own newspapers, periodicals and political parties. Inevitably, when broadcasting became part of Dutch life, it faithfully reflected the divisions in Dutch society.

The first four broadcasting organisations given permission by the State to broadcast in the 1920s were the KRO (Catholic Radio Broadcasting), the Protestant NCRV (Dutch Christian Radio Assocation), the neutral AVRO (General Radio Broadcasting Association), and the VARA (Socialist Broadcasting Association).

While the Broadcasting Act largely underpins the pluralistic concept of broadcasting, shifts in Dutch society had, by the 1960s, brought profound changes to the broadcasting organisations themselves. The Catholic broadcasting organisation, KRO, for example, with which the most conservative and religious could for years comfortably identify, changed in the 1960s into an organisation which not only challenged social problems but, indeed, started challenging various concepts of its own Church. The most profound change, however, was brought about by the birth of TROS.

TROS was the child of various commercial concerns that were dissatisfied with the Dutch regulations which stipulated that advertising on radio and television could only be conducted through STER (the Television Radio Advertising Foundation) and then only in blocks of a few minutes before and after news programmes, thus achieving a strict separation between programming and advertising. Several companies therefore financed an illegal TV station, REM, which was set up in 1963 on a steel rig just outside Dutch territorial waters. The Government, after emotional debate, forcibly closed it in 1964.

But during its year of operation this television station had become very popular and after its closure it reconstituted itself and sought legal recognition, calling itself TROS (Television and Radio Broadcasting Foundation), a title with double meaning as "tros" is the Dutch word for a hawser which is used to tie a ship to the quay. TROS could almost immediately prove it had sufficient membership to qualify as a candidate organisation. It was given this status by the Minister, and started broadcasting legally from Hilversum in October 1966. It is today one of the two largest broadcasting organsiations, and it can fairly be said that its success has shaken the pluralistic structures of Dutch broadcasting.

Until the advent of TROS, entertainment for the sake of entertainment was never rated very highly and was provided only if it fitted into the relevant ideology of the broadcasting organisation concerned. With TROS, however, came "TROS-sification"; meaning the presentation of entertainment without pretention; programmes (including topical and cultural items) designed only to entertain the viewer and listener.

The 1975 Memorandum

The last few years have seen increasing pressure for structural and programme changes. On 18 March 1975 the Minister presented to Parliament a Memorandum on mass media policies. The Memorandum dealt mainly with the press and broadcasting.

It stressed that media should answer the needs of "both transmitters and receivers of information" and that they should be "pluralistic". The use of cable was said to "have no effect, in principle, on the Government's responsibilities in broadcasting – the rights of a holder of a licence authorising him to operate a central aerial for the transmission of cable programmes

extend only to the management of the technical apparatus. The Memorandum also said that there must be sound cultural justification for the licensing of new broadcasting organisations"; that "the 'complete programme' requirement embodied in the present Broadcasting Act will be applied to the letter", and that the structure of the NOS would be reconsidered with the possibility of shortening the broadcasting time presently allotted to tne NOS.

The Memorandum dealt with several other matters including regional broadcasting which it defined as "all those (broadcasts) not intended for the whole of the Netherlands public," affirming that "regional broadcasting may prove important to the cultural life and social integration of a region." However, the Minister said that the need for regional broadcasting had not arisen everywhere and, most importantly, that "the cost of regional broadcasts will be borne by the regions; in the beginning, at least, they will not be regarded as basic resources, and hence their cost will not be considered essential to social or cultural welfare. '

Six Experiments

The Minister announced that further developments must await the completion of the six municipal experiments in local cable (which end this Autumn). He also announced that some two-year experiments in over-the-air regional broadcasting would take place in Amsterdam and part of North Brabant.

Parliament adopted the Memorandum and earlier this year the Government was able to submit a draft Bill proposing changes to the 1967 Broadcasting Act. Shortly afterwards, however, the Government resigned. Future developments in Dutch broadcasting remain uncertain. The Netherlands goes to the polls as 'InterMedia' goes to print. If the draft bill is eventually approved, one of the intended results will be the prevention of an increase in the number of broadcasting organisations which do not have a clearly defined ideological positions such as TROS and VOO, both present day descendants from pirate broadcasting stations.

Other results would be that the broadcasting organisations' efforts to present a "comprehensive" programme would be monitored; the qualifications for entry into the broadcasting system would become more stringent; the Minister's authority over programme output would be reinforced; and the Minister could require, after he has sought advice, that radio programmes of one category could be assembled on one channel. At present, in the evening hours, the radio channel of Hilversum 1 acts as a "family" channel, Hilversum 2 as a "cultural" channel and Hilversum 4, except for 2 hours of talks per day, as a serious music channel. In contrast to the popular Hilversum 3, the light-music channel, Hilversum 1, 2 and 4 all serve minority audiences

Under the proposed amendment to the Broadcasting Act the transmission time of the NOS would be slightly reduced as, the Minister felt, with the growing tolerance of society, there is less need for its consensus programmes. Matters that remain to be decided are the future regulation and financing of regional and local broadcasting and how future educational broadcasting will be designed when the proposed Open University, Open School and third television channel come into being. • J.G.A.

The Media's Conflict

"The Media's Conflict of Interests" first appeared in 'The Center Magazine' (November/December, 1976), published by the Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions, Santa Barbara. This article has been considerably shortened from the original by the author.

THE PREMISE OF democracy is that a people can govern themselves. The condition for this audacious assumption is that the people will have the information they need to make wise political decisions.

Now, over the years and without a great deal of close and sustained attention being paid to it, a curious thing has happened to freedom of expression, to the people's access to the ideas and the information they need for the shaping of their political judgment, and to the quality of public affairs journalism. Today, in some respects the most interesting and formidable threat to consistently responsible journalism comes not so much from government as from the mass media themselves.

The actions of government are not insignificant. Indeed, they are serious and disturbing. In broadcast journalism, government regulations now reach to the content of news and public affairs programming. In both broadcasting and the newspapers, some of the courts, including the highest, have been underrating – sometimes on very questionable grounds – one of the indispensable conditions of professional journalism, the confidentiality of the relationship between the reporter and his sources of information. That this confidential relationship raises competing civil liberties considerations, that it can be abused by an unscrupulous reporter or his source – eg, to mount an anonymous and cowardly attack on another person – that it can defeat the right of litigants to compel the production of testimony in a trial, does not change the fact that confidentiality itself is irreplaceable in a journalism that is truth-seeking and truth-telling.

But the threats to freedom of expression from government are sharp and acute. They are easily, quickly and dramatically identified as First Amendment issues by an outraged press. The threats from the media, on the other hand, tend – not surprisingly – to be under-reported, if not unnoticed, in the press, with the predictable result that they are often dimly perceived and only faintly understood by the public.

Three years ago, Stephen R Barnett, a professor of law at the University of California at Berkeley, commented, in an article in 'The Nation', on the fact that the media tend to look the other way on important issues in which they – and perforce the public – are involved.

"One hears much about reporters' subpoenas and the threat they pose to the public's right to know, but considerably less about other controversies involving the media, the government, and the First Amendment," wrote Professor Barnett. "The whole subject of media concentration somehow eludes

# of Interests by Donald Mcdonald

the nation's newspapers and TV stations. Two years ago, for example, when Congress made its own contribution to newspaper monopoly by passing the Newspaper Preservation Act, the publishers' lobbying campaign was backed up by studied blandness in the nation's press . . .

At present, the leading non-story is the proposal of the Federal Communications Commission to break up common ownership of newspapers and broadcast stations in cities throughout the country – an uncommonly important and controversial issue that may be unrivalled for the thoroughness with which the media have blacked it out."

Two facts about the media bear most heavily on the performance of working journalists and on the quality of their public affairs reporting. They are the big-business nature of the media and the increasing concentration of their ownership in fewer and fewer hands. Neither of these developments was foreseen by the founding fathers. Both of them jeopardise the freedom and diversity of expression and therefore they make problematic the possibility of realistic and wise decision-making by the American people.

The Profitable Press

Today, the business of the media is very big and very profitable. The compulsion to grow bigger and more profitable, while understandable – though often unattractive – in, say, the oil, steel, and automotive industries, introduces a profound conflict of interests in the media and invites hypocrisy in media owners whose function, as A J Liebling once noted, is "to inform the public, but whose role is to make money."

"It is startling (or would be, except we are used to it", wrote Charles Rembar, a lawyer, in the April, 1973, 'Atlantic', "that the means by which the citizens of a democracy get their news – information that they must have in order to run their country – is a form of private property."

One of the effects of the profit imperative in mass communication is the relentless drive by owners to achieve as much monopoly as the law will allow. The best short description and most astute analysis of how this works and consequently what happens to the freedom and diversity of expression is to be found in Liebling's book, 'The Press':

"The profit system implies a pursuit of maximum profit for the shareholders' sake, distasteful though it may be. That it is theoretically possible to make money by competition in the newspaper field is therefore immaterial, since there is a great deal more money to be made by (a) selling out and pocketing a capital gain; (b) buying the other fellow out and then sweating the serfs. . . .

"The point is, that even when two, or several, competing newspapers in a town are both, or all, making money, it is vastly to the advantage of one to buy out the others, establish a monopoly in selling advertising, and benefit from the 'operating economies' of one plant, one staff, and exactly as much news coverage as the publisher chooses to give. The advertisers must have him anyway, and the readers have no other pabulum. He will get all the income for a fraction of the outlay, so he can afford to pay a price for his competitor's paper far beyond what it might be worth to a buyer from outside, who would continue to operate it competitively. . . .

"What you have in a one-paper town is a privately owned public utility that is constitutionally exempt from public regulation, which would be a violation of freedom of the press. As to the freedom of the individual journalist in such a town, it corresponds exactly with what the publisher will allow him. He can't go over to the opposition [paper] because there isn't any. If he leaves, he ends his usefulness to the town, and probably to the state and region in which it is situated, because he takes with him the story that caused his difference with the management, and in a distant place it will have no value. . . .

"Diversity – and the competition that it causes – does not ensure good news coverage or a fair champion for every point of view, but it increases the chances."

In 1955, Robert Hutchins, addressing a meeting of the American Society of Newspaper Editors, told them that "if the soliloquy [of the publisher] is that of one of the richest men in town, it is more than likely that it will sound the same political note as other soliloquies in other towns, rendered by other rich men. . . . In the absence of some new technological revolution the number of papers per community in this country seems unlikely to increase. . . . As monopoly continues to spread, the ancient check of competition can of course no longer be relied on."

Eight years earlier, Mr Hutchins' Commission on the Freedom of the Press had concluded a three-year study of the media with this warning:

"Protection against government is now not enough to guarantee that a man who has something to say shall have a chance to say it. The owners and managers of the press determine which persons, which facts, which versions of the facts, and which ideas shall reach the public. . . . Through concentration of ownership the variety of sources of news and opinion is limited. At the same time the insistence of the citizen's need has increased. . . . The service of news, as distinct from the utterance of opinion, acquires a new importance. The need of the citizen for adequate and uncontaminated mental food is such that he is under a duty to get it. Thus his interest also acquires the stature of a right.

"To protect the press is no longer automatically to protect the citizen or the community. The freedom of the press can remain a right of those who publish only if it incorporates into itself the right of the citizen and the public

interest. . . . The voice of the press, so far as by a drift toward monopoly it tends to become exclusive in its wisdom and observation, deprives other voices of a hearing and the public of their contribution. . . .

"The outstanding fact about the communications industry today is that the number of its units has declined. . . . If modern society requires great agencies of mass communication, if these concentrations become so powerful that they are a threat to democracy, if democracy cannot solve the problem simply by breaking them up – then those agencies must control themselves or be controlled by government. . . . [In the latter event, we will have lost our] chief safeguard against totalitarianism, and at the same time take a long step toward it."

Sears on Trial

The concentration of media ownership, despite this warning, has continued to increase. Ninety-six per cent of the daily-newspaper cities now have only one publisher.

And of course, even a less concentrated ownership of the media would not necessarily diminish the threat to a free and open press. If, instead of the Knight-Ridder group, an independent publisher had purchased the Wichita, Kansas, 'Eagle & Beacon' a few years ago, the purchase price would still have been $42.5 million. It is unlikely that anyone who could write a cheque for that amount would be composing a different soliloquy than that of the richest man in town.

Theoretically it is possible for the communications industry, committed though it is to ever-increasing corporate profits, to report all the public affairs issues of the day in adequate depth and to reflect the diversity of viewpoints and interests of the American people, not necessarily totally, not necessarily to the satisfaction of everyone, but in some decently comprehensive way. But the record is not reassuring.

In February of this year, Sears, Roebuck and Company, the world's largest retailer (annual sales exceed thirteen billion dollars), and the nation's third largest advertiser, went on trial in Chicago before an adminstrative law judge of the Federal Trade Commission. The charges were that Sears had systematically engaged in bait-and-switch selling tactics. Sears employs thirty thousand people in the Chicago area and 417,000 nationwide. It has more than twenty-one million credit accounts in the United States. The hearings lasted eleven days. Eighteen former Sears employees from thirteen states, and twenty-five consumer witnesses from eleven states, testified to Sears' sleazy tactics. Michael Hirsh, a Chicago public television producer, writing in the July/August, 1976, 'Columbia Journalism Review', reports that the Chicago 'Tribune' (circulation 747,000), which receives five million dollars in advertising from Sears each year, "carried not one line about the case from the date the trial began . . . until it ended." The 'Tribune' filed a four-paragraph story a week after the trial, a "condensed replay of a report filed by David Elsner of the 'Wall Street Journal' Chicago bureau." Coverage by the other two Chicago dailies was only a little bit better.

Michael Frome was fired in 1974 as conservation editor of 'Field & Stream' magazine after he began to rate United States representatives and senators according to their voting records on environmental issues, after he reported questionable land transactions conducted in New Mexico by the state office of the Bureau of Land Management of the Department of the Interior (a report that his editors chose not to publish), and after he filed a criticism of the Forest Service's new Environmental Program for the Future. 'Field & Stream' is owned by CBS, Inc.

In Denver, a consumer affairs television reporter, Dave Minshall, was "re-assigned" by station KOA-TV after the station received complaints from an advertising agency handling the accounts of some of KOA's clients.

In Washington, DC, George Allen's consumer affairs television programme, "Caution," was cancelled by WTOP-TV, but he doubts that pressure took the crude form of a telephone from an advertiser or an agency to the station. "It's just that they all think alike," he said. "They all belong to the same economic church. . . . The pressures put on by regular advertisers like General Motors or General Foods are . . . subtle. That pressure translates into the omissions of good reporting."

Ten years ago, Fred Friendly quit CBS television when the network executives refused to air the Senate Foreign Relations Committee's hearings on American foreign policy in Vietnam and insisted on broadcasting a fifth rerun of 'I Love Lucy' and an eighth rerun of 'The Real McCoys.' Mr Friendly said the network would not have suffered a net loss that year if they had dropped the reruns for a few days; it would only have made a little less profit. When CBS officials were confronted by that argument in a discussion at the Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions they replied that, for CBS shareholders, no decrease in net profits is acceptable.

The Bias Against Understanding

There are other signs, other indications of weakness in the media, conspicuous "omissions of good reporting."

I have yet to see, for example, any television network documentaries that would clarify the public's understanding of how oil, gas, coal, and electricity prices are established in the fuel industry. I have seen nothing that would lead to a public understanding of the phenomenon of vertical integration in the same industry. Nor have I seen anything on television comparable to the article that appeared almost two years ago in 'The Nation' by Louis B Schwartz, a professor of law and economics at the University of Pennsylvania. Professor Schwartz examined the relationship between big American multinational oil companies and the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), and what must be done in this country is consumption of oil is to be cut and conservation of oil resources increased.

In this connection, it may be simply coincidence that Exxon has been a major sponsor of the National Broadcasting Company's 'Nightly News' programme, and that Gulf, Mobil, Shell, Texaco, and Union are heavy advertisers on all three networks.

It is not that the networks impose a blackout on all news reflecting unfavourably on, say, the oil companies. They cannot ignore a Santa Barbara oil blowout, or an announcement by the oil companies or an energy czar that the price of petrol will go up by six cents next week. It is simply that they refrain from enlightening their viewers, through investigative reporting, as to why and how these things happen.

Without a clear understanding of how the political and

economic forces interact and produce the phenomena of high unemployment, swollen profits, and ever-increasing prices, citizens – and today they get most of their news through television – are left with the impression that it would be foolish to direct their rage and resentment at any particular target. The implication is that nobody is really at fault, that all of us are caught up in a baffling system beyond anybody's comprehension, control, and responsibility. Lacking an understanding, citizens lack the means to form a politically potent public opinion, one which can be focused and sustained until the needed reforms are accomplished. A public opinion lacking content and based almost solely on diffused rage is really not so much a public opinion as a public mood; as such, it poses no threat to entrenched power.

Of course, the "omissions of good reporting" are not confined to television. Jules Witcover, a highly respected Washington newspaper reporter, said of the 1975 A J Liebling Counter-Convention (an annual meeting set up a few years ago by working journalists to offset the annual business-oriented convention of the American Newspaper Publishers Association) that "the most disappointing panel was one on self-censorship. . . . The discussion never got seriously into the questions of why newspapers do not print certain stories. . . . Such a convention ought to confront hard questions that seldom are aired elsewhere, and especially not in newsrooms. . . ."

Erwin Knoll, editor of 'The Progressive' magazine, said of the first A J Liebling Counter-Convention that the chief complaints of the journalists included "the squandering of their talents on mass media preoccupied with peddling trivia; the boundless capacity of the press to ignore (or distort) the realities with which Americans need to be confronted; the faithful subservience of the media to the power elites of which they are a part."

Buying Time

The public's understanding of the Federal Election Campaign Act in particular and electoral reform in general has been impaired in great part because of television journalism's neglect to fulfill its informing function. It is common knowledge that political candidates must raise enormous sums of money to run for office, and, therefore, unless they are independently wealthy, they must obligate themselves and, as it were, mortgage their political consciences to powerful special interests. I know of no television network or station that has explained in any satisfying and illuminating detail how much of a candidate's money must be spent to purchase television time and newspaper space for advertising, and what the arguments have been in the political-science community for at least minimal amounts of free time and space in the media which would remove much, if not most, of the bribe and extortion factor from American politics.

The "omissions of good reporting" are not the only way by which the media-as-industry are served and the public-as-citizens disserved. Chief Judge David L Bazelon of the United States Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia Circuit (where most FCC litigation ends up) reviewed some of the other ways in a speech two years ago to the Federal Communications Bar Association in Washington.

"Many of us members of the bench and bar," Judge Bazelon said, "would be willing to walk more than an extra mile" to uphold the traditional view of the First Amendment and help broadcasters resist all government attempts to interfere with their "wide legitimate discretion." But the broadcasters are not making their defence easy. They must, he said, admit their shortcomings, "their abuse of the immense power of television for the private profit of a few, to the serious detriment of the nation at large.

"They know the impact of their programmes on children, they know about the marketing of human emotions and of the prurient interest in violence and sex. They know when they subvert the professionalism of their own news teams in order to reach the demographic audiences which will attract advertisers. They know that wide exposure of subjects ranging from the names of rape victims to the private grief of a mother on the death of her son constitute unconscionable invasions of privacy. And they know when they are over-commercialising their programming to amortise the inflated cost of the broadcast licence.

"In sum," Judge Bazelon said, "I think they know the times they may have prostituted the tremendous potential of television as a human communication tool. They know this and they know what should be done about it. The programming executives and their advertiser clients must stop their single-minded purpose to achieve higher ratings, more advertising, and greater profits, and stop to consider what greater purposes television should serve. And they must do it soon if we are to preserve our First Amendment values for telecommunications."

Need for Diversity and Access

It would be surprising, given the newspaper and television industries' corporate-commercial nature and their symbiotic relationship with the business and financial communities, if they were to have achieved a good record in the matter of open channels; that is, in providing adequate access for the information and ideas on which a democratic society lives.

Marquis Childs, after he had completed a study of press freedom for the Ford Foundation, concluded that the lack of diversity of voices in the media and the people's feelings that they have no access to the media are two of the major problems facing both publishers and station owners.

In 1970, the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence said in its final report: "The news media can play a significant role in lessening the potential for violence by functioning as a faithful conduit for intergroup communication, providing a true marketplace of ideas, providing full access to the day's intelligence, and reducing the incentives to confrontation that sometimes erupts in violence. . . .

"It should become habitual editorial policy to display fairly and clearly the opinions, analyses, and solutions offered by a wide variety of people, expert and non-expert, covering the spectrum, regardless of the proprietor's personal position. . . .

"We strongly recommend that the news media examine carefully the problems posed when equivalent access to the media is denied."

One of the "practical" arguments against liberalising the public's access to the mass communications media is that this

would open the floodgates to an exotic variety of kooks and quacks peddling every political and social nostrum that can be conjured up by the fevered imagination of troubled human minds. The traffic problem alone for such a medicine show would cripple the operations of most media, it is argued.

Facts are the Most Trouble

But there are ways to filter the material and manage the traffic and not be too quick to make judgements. More to the point, it is not ideas and opinions that necessarily constitute the most important or the most sensitive and controversial of the access material. It is factual information that is the more troublesome, because more stubborn, kind of truth. It is here that private censorship tends to be swift and punishment ruthless. Michael Frome was not fired from 'Field & Stream' because he voiced unpopular opinions. He was fired after he reported factual truths about how certain congressmen voted on specific environmental issues, and after he reported the fact that certain government agencies were letting valuable land slip out of the public domain into private hands, with inadequate record and no public review.

In her book, 'Between Past and Future', Hannah Arendt distinguishes between rational truth and factual truth and the different kinds of threat each poses to the person of power, political or economic.

"No former time tolerated so many diverse opinions of religious or philosophical matters," she writes, "[but] factual truth, if it happens to oppose a given group's profit or pleasure, is greeted today with greater hostility than ever before. . . . What seems even more disturbing is that to the extent to which unwelcome factual truths are tolerated in free countries, they are often, consciously or unconsciously, transformed into opinions. . . .

"Freedom of opinion is a farce unless factual information is guaranteed and the facts themselves are not in dispute. . . . Factual truth informs political thought just as rational truth informs philosophical speculation."

The importance of access to factual truths in the communications media was underlined by Charles Rembar in his 'Atlantic' article. Rembar grants the importance of access to diverse beliefs and opinions, but, he says, "There is something else crucial to the First Amendment. It is communication of fact. Not opinion, not belief, not ideas, but fact; not release of what is inside one's head, but transmission of external data. Even though it has up to now played so small a part in the history of free speech, even though it was scarcely in the minds of those who drafted the Bill of Rights, it is crucial to that document's purposes. . . .

"Factual information was the subject of the case of the Pentagon Papers. . . . It is the stated goal of journalists who resist grand jury subpoenas. Facts are the prize, on both sides of the fight. The subpoenas are not concerned with secret sources of opinion. Neither are the reporters, who want to dig out facts. Again, a former CIA man, Victor Marchetti, seeks to publish a book about what went on in the CIA. The CIA and, so far, the courts, do not think he ought to. without a check on whether he is divulging 'classified information. Nobody suggests he may not publish his opinion of the CIA."

As a verification of the critical importance of access to the mass media for factual information in general and for the facts about America's intervention in Vietnam in particular, Abe Rosenthal of 'The New York Times' said of his paper's publication of the Pentagon Papers: "For the first time in history citizens were able to read and judge and draw their conclusions from a documentary case study of how one American government after another, in concealment from its public, went to war. . . ."

Information for the People

Remedial alternatives to the present state of the nation's mass media – all looking toward a freer flow of information and ideas, greater diversity of viewpoints, and more vigorous media competition to bring to the public that "popular information" which James Madison saw as indispensable to "popular government" – fall into four main categories:

- De-concentration of ownership of the media.
- Facilitation of the entry of new, competitive media in the life of the national community.
- Opening up existing communication channels, expanding the public's access to them.
- Developing the ethical and legal grounds for asserting the individual journalist's claim to a protected professional status vis-à-vis not only the government but also the institution that employs him or her.

Under the *de-concentration of media ownership*, I include:

1. Enforcement of FCC rules against cross-ownership of broadcasting and print media in the same city (1) now, in cities where it already exists; (b) prospectively, to prevent future cross-ownership acquisitions; and (c) in cases where present ownership is being transferred to new owners.

2. Legislation barring non-media ownership of media, and media ownership of non-media, interests.

3. A constitutional testing of the Newspaper Preservation Act of 1970.

4. A challenging of the application of the Newspaper Preservation Act in specific cities.

5. Development of antitrust doctrine and theory which might find that the public interest is seriously harmed not only by monopoly in the marketplace but also by monopoly of the means of disseminating public information, ideas, beliefs, and judgements.

6. Barring the acquisition of cable television facilities by commercial broadcasters and newspapers in the same city.

Under the *facilitation of the entry of new media* in the life of the community, I include:

1. Governmental and nongovernmental subsidies to help new media – publications, radio and UHF television stations, cable television – get started and become self-supporting.

2. Greater federal subsidisation of the Corporation for Public Broadcasting; the federal money coming, in part, from a "tax" on the revenues of commercial television and radio stations and networks.

3. Federal support of municipal "open access" cable television.

4. Federal and/or private-subscription funding of a Public Information Service in daily-newspaper format.

5. Federal and private support for technological exploration to devise more efficient and economical ways to operate newspapers.

6. Reservation of new VHF "drop-in" television stations for public interest groups.

Under the *opening-up of existing media channels*, I include:

1. Enforcement of Fairness Doctrine by the Federal Communications Commission.

2. Evolving the Fairness Doctrine into a representative access formulation.

3. Enforcement of FCC rules and standards at licence-renewal time.

4. Public hearings involving broadcasters and audience for the ascertainment of community needs.

Regarding the *journalist's professional status*, it is axiomatic that freedom is an essential condition for both responsibility and professional integrity. The problem for the journalist who aspires to high ethical and professional conduct is that his freedom is always qualified and inescapably vulnerable.

Freedom of the press, as A J Liebling once noted, is guaranteed only to those who own one.

The working journalist has only as much freedom as his employers chooses to give him. The First Amendment guarantees the journalist protection from the government's abridgement of his right to report and public. To date, it has offered no protection from an employer's arbitrary denial of that freedom. And yet, the professional integrity of the journalistic function itself demands it.

The Personal Element in the First Amendment

It would seem that it is precisely at the point where the individual journalist gathers, organises, and prepares his information for the public that the First Amendment protection must, above all, be firm, whether the threat to suppress that information comes from the government, industry, or the publishers and station owners themselves.

The personal dimension in the work of the individual reporter is, in a way, an irremovable and sovereign element. It is the reporter – not his publisher or station owner – who had confronted the truths that are in his report. And even as one acknowledges that the reporter's truths may be only parts of a larger web of related truths, under what circumstances can he permit his truths to vanish or be reshaped by another who has not experienced them, and still describe his work as professional?

In addition to these constitutional and personal elements in the journalistic function, there is the social element. Citizens must depend upon their journalists to provide the information they need to make self-government work and to achieve the end of a political community; that is, justice.

It is here where the journalist may also lay claim to the status of a professional. His professional aspirations and responsibilities are to be found in what he contributes to and what is required by the citizens of a democracy.

This was clearly seen by the former CBS news correspondent Daniel Schorr. Perhaps at least as portentous as his confrontation with the Ethics Committee of the House of Representatives were the professional implications of his relationship with CBS. The network suspended him, with pay, last February after he passed to 'The Village Voice' a secret House committee report on US intelligence activities.

In a speech last August to the Individual Rights and Responsibilities section of the American Bar Association, Schorr said, "if government should not control news, then no one should. The First Amendment says only that Congress shall make no law abridging the freedom of the press and speech. Perhaps it is time for an unofficial First Amendment that says no enterprise shall make rules abridging individual freedoms of speech and press.

"I am not suggesting that reporters have any right to decide what their employers will publish or broadcast. What I am talking about is the extent to which a journalist – part of a large news enterprise, subject to its disciplines when engaged in its process – still regains personal freedom of expression outside it. . . . A newspaper reporter who takes elsewhere a story that his editor had decided – perhaps for valid reasons – not to print may be severely disciplined, or even fired. That has happened.

"When did freedom of the press evolve into a franchise to be exercised through large enterprises? . . . I would suggest that the First Amendment is not only the news establishment's First Amendment, but it is every journalist's and every American's individual right and, what's more, individual responsibility".

Rights and Duties

Can the individual reporter or editor be protected in the performance of his professional duties to society – whether inside or outside his principal place of employment – without violating the rights of his employers?

Is it too much to expect that a professional contract or working agreement can be drawn up and a professional journalists' association organised to use that contract for measuring the performance of both the journalists and their employers? The agreement would have to spell out working conditions of the journalists, "due-process" protections against arbitrary actions by the journalists' employers, a fact-finding mechanism by which the professional association would be empowered to make independent investigations of professionals' complaints, and routine publication of their findings.

All the remedies I have recommended, except that which asks for strict enforcement of the FCC's Fairness Doctrine, have one thing in common: they keep government at arm's length from the content of newspapers and broadcasting. They seek, instead, to promote maximum diversity of media ownership, maximum competition in the task of informing the American citizens of public affairs and issues, and maximum protection for journalists so that they may, in fact, perform as professionals without fear of reprisals from any source.

I am under no illusion as to the probability that some of my remedial recommendations may be realised soon.

Congressmen need the media, and the media need the good will and benign attentiveness of Congress, if only to keep reformers at bay. It is a cosy mutual-protection arrangement. Under the circumstances, neither will seriously disturb the other. And it is not likely that American public opinion will demand reform, since that public opinion is to a great extent dependent upon what the media choose to disclose about these problems.

Hopes for permanent reform must lie in the courts rather than Congress or the industry, at least for now. •

Donald McDonald is editor of 'The Center Magazine' and former Dean of the Marguette University College of Journalism.

Sharing Traditional Technology

The United Nations University has approved a programme on Sharing Traditional Technology (STT) to contribute to the establishment of a horizontal network of communication and interaction among the rural poor.

THE EXISTING PATTERNS of development and the transfer of technology in the Third World have often bypassed the billion or more poorest people who live in the distant rural areas with minimal resources at hand. In terms of much development thinking, these people are sometimes literally "invisible". Those projects that are supposed to provide them with the simplest assistance often do not accomplish even that. In effect, these people, the "billion poorest", remain virtually untouched by today's development efforts.

Many development thinkers and agencies are becoming increasingly determined that these peoples' needs and demands are more fully understood and answered – and, when appropriate, integrated into the wider development context.

One way of accomplishing this objective, at least, is open. It is clear that many of these peoples have traditional resources and technologies (that is, ways of using those resources) of substantial value and significance. The exploitation and sharing of these traditional resources and technologies has the overwhelming advantages of being cheap, easily understandable, immediate and direct. By it, the people concerned may become both more self-reliant and more capable of interaction with the larger society.

The essence of this kind of development is that it is not "for" people but "by" and "with" people. It is not imposed from outside but rather grows from inside. The IIC has long been concerned with encouraging such "authentic", "self-reliant" development. At its two regional seminars on communication and development held in Nigeria and Guyana, several participants spoke of the need for such development and gave examples of its successful application in many Third World countries.

Transfer and Transformation

A project to encourage just such a sharing of traditional technology has been announced by the United Nations University as part of its programme on Technology Transfer, Transformation and Development. The project was proposed and prepared by Chandra Soysa, a member of the IIC who is Director of the Marga Institute (the Sri Lanka Centre for Development Studies), in his personal capacity as consultant to the United Nations University.

The project has three specific aims:

- To provide an immediate resource augmentation to the poorest without the provision of direct capital inputs or the introduction of literacy programmes
- To contribute to an understanding of the nature of societal and structural changes which generate, within poor communities, the capacity and ability to effect innovative technological change
- To investigate the possible linkages between traditional technology and modern technology in the process of rural transformation.

The project will attempt to achieve these objectives by a *practical programme* of exchanging the knowledge of pre-tested traditional technologies among selected rural communities, and by a concurrent *research programme* which through short desk-studies and longitudinal village studies will examine and monitor the societal and structural changes within which the technological changes occur.

The field workers, academics, institutes, and organisations, both governmental and non-governmental, will work within "a global programme of interdependent research and action-oriented activities" under the coordination of the United Nations University.

Chandra Soysa's proposal suggests that the project could not have been conceived within the framework of traditional knowledge or traditional technology. The sharing of traditional technology has become possible only recently, through the "global communication infrastructures which has been created by modern technology".

The project is therefore one "which can by its very existence demonstrate the dynamic co-existence and interaction of the traditional and modern sectors".

Responding to Resources

The project proposal stresses the importance of a country's technological response to resources in its all-important progress towards economic and social self-reliance. It suggests that today's technological responses to resources, whether national or global, are "in the hands of small minorities who exploit these resources to the detriment of the self-reliant progress of the mass of the people, the vast majority of whom live in the rural areas of the developing countries. It is, therefore, essential to improve the technological capability of these persons, so that they may achieve, by an integrated and dynamic response to their resources, and through their own technological style, the human and social development they seek.

"The generation of technological capability and the transfer of technological knowledge has hitherto taken place, especially at a national level, in an uncoordinated and fragmented fashion, with the result that very few developing countries have achieved the capacity for an organic and integrated technological response to their resources. This situation has been further aggravated by the fact that technological capability, and the transfers of technology, are controlled by minority (elite) groups.

"The structures of technology as they exist in developing countries do not exist and grow together within a homogenous framework. At one end are the structures of modern scientific knowledge, and at the other, often in opposition, the body of traditional knowledge and technology.

Two Billion Who Depend on Farming

The STT project envisages a "dialectic of integration" in which the "technological activation at all levels of the society leads, in the long term, to a harmonious integration of the traditional structures in the structures of modern science."

The first technological requirement of a developing country is seen in the proposal "as the establishment of an infrastructure of technological awareness. This awareness may lead to the appropriate infrastructure and a characteristic technological style so that the country, self-confident and self-reliant, can play a full role in an independent global community.

"To improve the technological capability of the mass of the people in the developing countries, one has to improve the technological capability of the poor who in fact constitute this mass.

"Half of the world's population continues to depend on agriculture, and 90% of these two billion people are living in the developing countries on a little more than half the world's agricultural area. They are, therefore, mostly landless farmers or small farmers.

"Though straddled by the industrial world which continues to marginalise most of them, modern industrial technology is a stranger to the lives of at least a billion of these people in the rural areas of the developing countries. Most of them, in this sense, still live in the pre-industrial age, and continue to use, unmodified, the traditional technological techniques which have been evolved over a long period of time and passed down to them, within their community, by their ancestors.

"In their daily life, or range of 'daily necessities', they hardly utilise products of the industrial age. When they do, the industrial products are often itilised for purposes other than for which they were designed, and are often the waste products of the industrial centres."

These billion, the rural poor, are the real poor of the world. Half of them are severely malnourished, and a quarter are children under five years of age who suffer from some degree of malnutrition.

At the bottom of the poverty pile are the millions of people living in isolated rural communities to whom a slight change in living conditions means the difference between survival and death. It is to these communities that the project is particularly directed; communities which are without access to capital and are illiterate, and who are (therefore ?) unable to develop any technological response to the demographic and environmental changes that are taking place around them.

Most of the work in this area concentrates on technology. However, says the proposal, "most of us are agreed that the marriage of science and technology to the needs of the poor will have, ultimately, to be the result of *political* action which will lead to structural changes.

"While the structural changes are being fought for, and while various programmes are demonstrating the suitability of the marriage partners, this programme concentrates on a small supplementary area – the building up, among the rural poor, of a self-reliant base for, and of, technological awareness."

The sharing of traditional technology is envisaged throughout the project as not being an end but a means to an end. The objective throughout is to help create a technology that is appropriate to the social, political, and economic style of development that countries may choose.

This new technology "should adapt both traditional and modern technology. It should aim to create a society where the criteria for the choice of a technology is not whether it is modern or not, or labour intensive or not – or even whether it will generate employment or not. All types of efficient rational technology, both traditional and modern, should exist side-by-side. Development does not mean reaching the high points in a technological continum; development should lead to the full utilisation of all available resources."

The thrust of the project is to generate a more technologically efficient response of the poor to their environment. In this way, "by their fuller utilisation of resources, by innovation, inventiveness, and the generation of their own capacity for research and development, the poor may reach a better quality of life."

This will be done in two ways: by creating an awareness of technology and by identifying and transferring selected technological resources between rural communities.

It will be "a programme of sharing without loss, and exchanging without sacrifice, so that by the coordination of the technological resource transfer, an increase in the total stock of knowledge among the rural poor can take place, resulting in an immediate and perhaps significant increase in the quality of their lives. It will be a sharing process which will not be disruptive of their societies.

"It is a process which can take place effectively and equitably only among the economically poorest who produce little or no surplus of any agricultural or industrial product. It is designed to enable the participants to develop a structured exchange among rural communities of their own indigenous traditional technological knowledge."

By "indigenous traditional knowledge" the proposal means "those items of knowledge which have through centuries accumulated in rural communities to form a seemingly unstructured and uninstitutionalised collection of endogenous solutions to local problems. These solutions, transmitted most often through an oral tradition, are based on direct experience or observation alone. They have evolved from long practical experience, but without the benefit of the sophisticated concepts or the theory of modern scientific knowledge."

The proposal also provides for a series of research and action-oriented programmes of activities which it is hoped will help rural communities to gain insights into the nature of the societal and structural changes that underlie, and result in, the development of a self-reliant attitude to their own resources, and which may also lead to the establishment of an infrastructure of technological awareness.

Appropriate Communication

The success of the project depends almost entirely on the communication of the various factors in the most appropriate way. Indeed, the project may be seen as an exercise in

appropriate communication – of awareness and of technology – to and among poor peoples.

The project proposal suggests that the communication factor should be included from the very beginning. It proposes a series of local seminars and workshops "to evolve a practical and efficient means of communication at the level of the rural communities, with the final objective of finding a means of horizontal communication between rural communities so that there is a continuous ebb and flow of knowledge within them".

"A new model of communication will have to be formulated – the type of communication process that is envisaged in this programme is somewhere between "diffusion" in the sense of the unplanned communication of new ideas and "dissemination" in the sense of planned communication".

After one year, the research institutes involved in the village studies should evolve the "elements of communication model required or the programme" and a "set of propositions or generalisations submitted to the Director of the programme".

It is then proposed that a special six-month desk study be set up to test these propositions against a set of published diffusion documents by a researcher familiar with the documents. This study may be done at the Diffusion Documents Centre of the Department of Communications at Michigan State University.

Innovations or techniques cannot be communicated or transferred singly. The report accepts that "selected relevant social ancillary techniques will also have to be transferred, although care will have to be taken to maintain 'neutrality' of the traditional technology at the moment of transfer, and not transfer with it associated structures.

"The forms of communication will have to evolve over the first two years. They should include the mass-media and all inter-personal channels (and the combinations of these as media forums); specialised media (eg, the rural television of the Indian Satellite Instructional Television Experiment); and all traditional media for communication such as storytellers and puppet shows.

In conclusion, the report says "this transfer process should attempt as far as possible to achieve the Chinese concept of their 'emulation campaign' with its five elements: Learn from, Compete with, Catch up with, Give assistance to, Surpass".

The Work of the Project

A meeting of the regional and national coordinators will be held from 11-18 July this year in the headquarters of the United Nations University in Tokyo, to review the choice of countries; discuss and refine the proposed areas of technological response; finalise the outlines of the research design; and formulate the comparative frameworks of the research designs and action programmes. It will also discuss the nature, extent, and functions of the networks to be used in the implementation and coordination of the programme.

The three areas or "clusters" of technological response which will be examined in detail have been chosen because they relate to the basic needs of human life. They are areas in which slight changes may mean a significant improvement in the quality of life, and also where "the variety and validity of traditional technological response is still available for analysis and exchange."

First, responses relating to food:

(i) the identification of what is eaten;
(ii) domestication of plants and animals;
(iii) how and why these identified resources are grown/manured/cared for – fed/cultivated/used,
(iv) how they are collected/transported/processed/stored;
(v) how food is prepared – cooked/raw/dried/pickled/utensils/other ingredients used – and why;
(vi) with what, and how, it is eaten – plain/as an additive/in combination with/preservation/disposal of food.

Second, responses relating to the protection and care of the human body:

(i) clothing – fibres/weaving/textiles/dyeing/stitching;
(ii) beautification and ornament – functional/non-functional;
(iii) methods of preventive medicine;
(iv) methods of curative medicine;
(v) maintenance and care of body – washing/bathing/cleaning teeth/keeping warm/keeping cool/quenching thirst/stopping pain;
(vi) amusement – games/dances/music-making/non-functional crafts/toys.

Third, responses relating to housing/shelter – the only possession common to all rural poor:

(i) building materials – identification of/transport;
(ii) types of ornamentation/craftmanship;
(iii) how they keep in, and out – air/heat/cold/light/wind;
(iv) how they keep in (store) and keep out water – wells/bins/eaves/damp-proofing/materials for channelling;
(v) how it is protected from small and large animals – windows/latches/locks/reinforcement/protective paints/wood;
(vi) what it is used for – service function of unit/garden/arrangement of interior/use of rooms, roofs, floor.

Desk Studies and Village Studies

The first part of the project's operation is a series of desk studies envisaged as a sort of stock-taking operation. The first set of studies, ranging over several countries, will try to identify on-going projects and studies to which the STT programme can relate, and which could be used as a feed-back as the programme develops. Three regional comparative studies will then be made, covering Africa, Latin America and Asia.

The second set of desk studies will look outside the twenty chosen countries of the main project and look instead at three "lost" civilisations – probably the Andean, Egyptian and early Chinese civilisations. These studies will not simply catalogue what these lost techniques were, but try to explain how and why these techniques evolved in the way they did.

The third set of desk studies will also spread outside the central study to investigate the traditional techniques of non-settled and nomadic communities. Since one of the "micro-causes" of extreme poverty, the project proposal suggests, is the lack of the appropriate technological response by rural communities "to demographic and environmental change, these communities which are now being marginalised by environmental and demographic pressures require special attention".

The desk studies are the first of three interlinking strands. The second strand – which is the central factor in the project – is the set of longitudinal village studies. Each study will

look at a community's total response to its resource base and monitor how and why the local technology has developed.

The traditional technologies will be analysed as the product of the interaction of three main elements:

(a) the pattern of resource use,
(b) the structure of access to resources in the community on which this pattern is based, and
(c) the set of relationships between the different socio-economic groups engaged in the exploitation and consumption of these resources.

As far as possible the village studied will examine "the responses made in traditional technology as components of a total system that was evolved by the community for the use of its resources."

Each village study will be slotted into a matrix of regional and inter-regional studies. By the end of the second year it is hoped that the selected villages will have become laboratories where controlled experiments of transfer and diffusion could be carried out.

The third strand of activities consists of enumeration, documentation and assessment. Detailed methodologies have been worked out for discussion at the Tokyo meeting in July which will be attended by the coordinators of the national programmes.

However, the "implementation of the objectives of the STT programme will be achieved by organising networks, both in the developing and developed countries, of field workers, concerned scholars, institutes, and organisations both governmental and non-governmental, who will work within a global programme of interdependent research and action-oriented activities under the coordination of the United Nations University." • JAH

The Council of the United Nations University at its meeting at the end of February 1977 allocated a sum of $100,000 for expenditure on the STT programme as a core budget for 1977 and a like sum for 1978. In view of the anticipated global nature of the programme and the expected participation of as many countries as possible in Asia, Latin America and Africa, the programme expects the establishment at an early stage of programmatic links, both indirect and direct, which can be of a participatory and/or supplementary financing nature.

The project proposal suggests that the International Institute of Communications "be asked to collaborate on this programme from its inception". It makes particular reference to the IIC seminar on Motivation, Information and Communication for Development in African and Asian Countries (Nigeria, 1974), and the IIC seminar on Communication and Information for Development Purposes in the Caribbean (Guyana, 1974).

A more detailed proposal of the methodology proposed, as well as the networks of institutions envisaged, is available as an additional document either from the United Nations University, Toho Seimei Building, 15-1 Shibuya 2-chome, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo 150, or the Marga Institute, PO Box 601, Colombo, Sri Lanka, either of whom can be contacted by members of the IIC for further information regarding the possibilities of direct or indirect linkage to the programme.

The Why and What of EURONET

by Harry Bloom, University of Kent

A COMPUTER NETWORK is an organic system. One leading network, EURONET, will soon extend its operations over an increasing geographical area with ever-improving technical equipment and an ever-wider source of documentation and source material.

A computer network is a collection of interconnected computers usually joined in a cluster around a host computer that does the heavy data processing for a large number of geographically distant data bases (as telephones can be said to be clustered around a telephone exchange). As in EURONET, the network may include several host computers. In this way a system can utilise the joint resources of separate computers.

Moreover, information can be accessed from afar so that for instance people on oilrigs, in aeroplanes or other remote sites can receive computer power similar to the way they can receive electric power in the home or factory. To make this possible a whole array of communications devices are needed – telephones, telex, cable radio, television and satellites. New forms of communication will undoubtedly be added in the immediate future.

In short, a computer network is a marriage of computers and communications.

It is expected that EURONET will complete its preparatory work and go into operation in 1978 or 1979. At the time of starting only two sectors were covered by automated data bases: *agricultural research* with AGREP (a permanent inventory of agricultural research projects) covering between ten and twelve thousand projects; and *education and training* with EDISED 1 (European Documentation and Information System on Education) in collaboration with the Council of Europe.

Since then an impressive collection of data-based information has been included. The first data-based operators to join EURONET will be, according to present planning, the Space Documentation Service (SDS) of the European Space Agency (ESA) in Frascati/Rome, and the Deutsches Institut fur Medizinische Dokumentation und Information (DIMDI) in Cologne.

As with several multi-purpose networks, EURONET is planned on a continental scale. It will not be confined to the EEC countries but is to be extended to other countries in Europe such as Sweden and Spain (see diagram 1). Moreover, it will in time be able to connect with the Advanced Research Projects Agency network and other US networks. In fact, EURONET aims at growing into the first international computer communications network in the world.

It can celebrate a number of European "firsts". It is the first time that a single network for transmitting information is to be set up in Europe; it is the first time that agreement has been reached on the use of single technology for network use (namely, packet switching); it is the first occasion on

which the national PTT administrations have ever really associated and formed a consortium for the purpose of planning and implementing a joint programme; it is the first example of the preparation of common standards for equipment in networks; and, finally, the agreement is the first to have linked the Community with the PTT member administrations.

EURONET will have host computers at London, Paris, Rome and Frankfurt. Second-level host computers (called remote concentrators) connecting any of the above four will be situated at Amsterdam, Brussels, Copenhagen, Dublin and Luxembourg. There will also be computers extending the network to most of the towns and cities of the Community.

Although established through the EEC Commission by the member PTTs, EURONET is conceived as a kind of common carrier. Information providers and information users are expected to include governments, corporations, institutions, universities, etc.

What will be the function of EURONET? The effective starting date of EURONET was December 1975 when the EEC Commission signed a contract with a consortium of the nine PTTs of the Community to provide on a common Community basis a network whose purpose would be to make scientific and technical information and documentation accessible as rapidly and cheaply as possible to all Community inquirers. These aims have expanded in the course of EURONET's formation. The phrase "scientific and technical information" is being interpreted to include economic, educational, environmental, legal, etc, data.

In terms of the product mix that is emerging, about one-third of all the data bases is related to the hard sciences – chemistry, physics, metallurgy, electronics and so on. About a quarter is related to medicine and biology; and the rest is distributed unevenly over education, agriculture, law, environment, etc.

Identifying Gaps

A problem for the EURONET planners is to try and identify gaps. In their submission to the EEC Parliament they said "there may be a real user need which is not fulfilled by that set of data bases". The current product mix is biased against the non-research side of industry. Patents is an example; so are product information and market research data. Moreover, there is a certain overlap of data bases in the offerings represented by the project mix of each host.

To consolidate data and prevent duplication it was agreed that "each member state and the Commission intending to mount data bases in EURONET will make all necessary contacts with its partners, including the European Space Agency, in order to encourage the avoidance of wasteful duplication", and "will encourage the use of all data bases mounted on EURONET." Thus is expressed the basis intention

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EURONET

EURONET has four host computers at Frankfurt, London, Paris and Rome and second-level host computers called remote concentrators at Amsterdam, Brussels, Copenhagen, Dublin and Luxembourg.

Other major computers are or will be located at Dusseldorf, Glasgow, Hamburg, Lyon, Milan and Munich (in EEC countries) and Geneva, Madrid and Stockholm (in non-EEC countries).

The network management centre is in London.

The Paris host computer is expected to be the most heavily used of the four with over 100,000 regular users. Other frequent users are expected to be situated around Amsterdam, Birmingham, Copenhagen, Dusseldorf, Frankfurt, Hamburg, London, Milan, Rome and Stockholm.

Users may connect to the network in three different ways: via direct access circuits; via the public switched telephone network; or via special public data networks.

The lines shown on the map indicate EURONET regions, not national boundaries.

to co-operate with regard to the overall supply of services to EURONET and the strong intention to market those services across the Community.

How will data bases be made available to the host operators and how will conditions be harmonised to bring about this result? EURONET has produced draft guidelines which cover such areas as the definition of a data base; the definition of the services derivable from a data base; the support to be given to host computers by data base suppliers; the responsibility of the host with regard to the data base supply; and conditions of use under which a data base may be operated and sold.

The network will operate its own computerised charging and accountancy systems. The idea is to encourage the simplification and harmonisation of the overall structure. The relationship that host computer operators can expect to have to EURONET as a whole has been the subject of study by the EURONET planners, and some work, albeit still rather tentative, is proceeding on this front. Three kinds of factors have been envisaged: technical, user and management.

Technical. Under this heading come the very important considerations of interface development which makes for the largest possible interconnection between different kinds of computer systems, and in general the development of common standards (eg, a command language).

User. One basis principle of EURONET is that there is to be non-discriminatory access by all users. This means, in part, that adequate support facilities must be provided for users in countries other than those where the host is located; there must be suitable training institutions, courses and manuals; and adequate notice of changes such as the withdrawal or modification of an existing service. There must also be the provision of equivalent services in other countries beyond those in which the host is located.

Management. Under the third category come several economic and management factors which raise the question of the long-term harmonisation of tariff structures and of conditions of sale. This is proving by no means easy under the sytem which is being aimed at by EURONET. The separate PTTs are of course subject to the laws of their separate countries and they have separate privileges and duties (eg, differing degrees of monopoly). The process of harmonising the operations of PTTs to provide a uniform operation to EURONET is subject to negotiation. There has been reason for confidence that the PTTs would see eye to eye on this, but at the moment several problems have come to the front. No doubt these problems will be overcome, as have other problems of EURONET; but at the moment they are top of the agenda.

The network will be financed from Community funds with an initial three year investment of some three million European Units of Account, (approximately £2.45 million).

Three-Tiered Tariffs

EURONET's tariff structure will be three-tiered. There will be a line cost for connection to access points of the network; charges for use of the communication network; and charges for the use of the facilities of the relevant information service provider. This last category of tariffs will depend on arrangements with data base operators and the information service suppliers, but several points should be noted. The definition of the tariff level and structure is the responsibility of each PTT administration. However, discussions are taking place between the PTT administrations and the EEC Commission on tariff definitions which will consider the special requirements of the EEC. The Commission will emphasise what may be considered as the central points of its policy.

Tariffs will be dependent upon data volume and connect time. They should be independent of distance. In principle, EURONET users should be treated on an equal footing throughout the Community. Behind this principle lies the fact that any node can be reached from any other node no matter where they are situated. Traffic jams will be avoided by an automatic routing of traffic so that it reaches its destination by the quickest possible means.

Protocols And Standards

Protocol is the name given to the set of rules that govern the interaction user/data base during operations. Three levels can be distinguished in EURONET's protocols:

- The inner network protocols that govern the functioning of the communications network. These protocols will be mainly based on the technology, programmes and usage of the existing harmonised resource-sharing European Information Network (EIN).
- The interface specifications covering the connection of host computers and terminals to the network. One guideline for drafting these specifications will be the need to accommodate a maximum number of the terminals now being used in information retrieval.
- The user-host protocol is the highest level protocol that embodies all rules specific to EURONET's information-retrieval operations, such as the accommodation of differing retrieval procedures and of a standard command set. This protocol will be developed in close consultation with the Committee for Information and Documentation on Science and Technology and will take into account the relevant recommendations of international organisations (eg, ISO, UNISIST and CODATA). The main principle will be that the standard methods should be optional, and exclude as few current systems as possible, leaving it to the user to decide on a system-specific or standardised approach to any particular enquiry. In the end this protocol, with its opportunity of standardisation, will enable the user to use a large variety of data bases and retrieval systems in an easy and uniform way.

Relationships To Other Networks

Of course, EURONET is not starting in a vacuum but in a complex landscape of emerging data and information networks. Consequently, connections are envisaged with the new public data networks that are developing in Member States, such as TRANSPAC in France, the Experimental Packet Switching Service (EPSS) in the UK, and the circuit switched service in the Federal Republic of Germany and Denmark.

EURONET also expects to co-operate with information services developed by international organisations, such as the ARPA network in America. In fact, EURONET is being projected as being world-wide. It is to be an efficient information network, taking fully into account the merging international standards in the new field of data communications. •

Linking Broadcast Satellites in the UN and ITU

INTERNATIONAL DISCUSSIONS about broadcast satellites moved forward several steps at the meeting of the Legal Sub-Committee of the United Nations' Outer Space Committee, in March/April. This important meeting should be seen in conjunction with the results of the recent International Telecommunication Union's World Administrative Radio Conference on the planning of the broadcasting satellites in certain frequency bands (known as WARC-BS).

The reason why these two events should be connected is an issue which is not sufficiently explored: it is the relevance of the ITU decisions for the UN discussions, in particular with regard to such questions as the scope of the regulations adopted at the ITU Conference, the relationship between subject matter before the ITU and before the UN, and the relative standing of decisions taken in each organisation.

These issues have, in a somewhat awkward form, been often put into one question: have the decisions made by the ITU Conference made unnecessary or, at least, diminished the urgency of reaching agreement in the UN context? This formulation is awkward since it does not distinguish between various aspects of the problem which could more conveniently be placed on two different levels:

- the "technical" juridical questions of the exact scope and standing of the Final Acts of the ITU Conference in the context of international law and its implications for work in the UN context;
- the "political" juridical question of whether and, if so, in what form an agreement on legal principles in the UN is desirable or necessary.

There are several reasons for paying particular attention to the first of these issues. Not only has there been what appears a reluctance to face up to its implications but also a certain ambivalence in the attitudes adopted by governments.

In the long run, these questions cannot be avoided, particularly not in view of the ITU World Administrative Radio Conference to be convened in 1979 which, in contrast to all the recent administrative radio conferences, will have a general and more wide-ranging mandate to revise "as required" the entire Radio Regulations.

Comparing the scope of the WARC-BS decisions and the proposed UN principles

The first distinction to be made between the ITU and UN accomplishments is that ITU decisions concern all broadcasting-satellite services for whatever purpose, while the intended UN principles only concern international transmissions – that is intentional transmissions from one country (or countries) to another country (or countries).

The 1977 WARC-BS was requested to deal with the planning of the broadcasting-satellite service in certain specified frequency bands (11.7–12.2 GHz in Regions 2 and 3, 11.7–12.5 GHz in Region 1). These frequency bands were only part of the frequency ranges that had been allocated to the broadcasting-satellite service in 1971. Thus, the WARC-BS did not plan for more than one of the frequency ranges set off for this service.

Moreover, the conference managed to agree on a plan for ITU Regions 1 and 3, but it did not adopt any plan for Region 2 (The Americas). This region adopted only preliminary provisions, pending a Regional Administrative Radio Conference to be convened no later than 1982.

The plans adopted by the Conference are therefore not global in scope but only concern two of the three Regions defined by the ITU.

Arguments have also been advanced that the 1977 WARC-BS had de facto solved outstanding problems discussed in the UN. They include the suggestion that the 12 GHz band is the only one immediately relevant. Second, that at the technical level the decisions of the Conference imply a recognition of the "prior agreement" principle that an agreement between countries should be reached prior to the establishment of a satellite broadcasting system intended for broadcasts to other countries. It has also been said that the provisions for Region 2 should be sufficient to safeguard the interests of the countries in the area.

However, none of these arguments can be said to have legal or political validity. They depend on assumptions concerning technical developments and probable usage, the attitudes of countries, etc.

The basic principles underlying the plans adopted at the 1977 Conference have been stated as

- the importance of making the best possible use of the radio-frequency spectrum and the geo-stationary orbit;
- the need for an orderly development of the services to which the frequency bands are allocated;
- the equal rights of all countries, even those not represented at the Conference.

The plan adopted for Regions 1 and 3 basically concerns national satellite broadcasting services with some few exceptions for joint services (as in the case of the Nordic countries). By definition, a plan of this kind implies "prior consent or agreement", since all countries represented have notified their approval subject to reservations and ratification. While in the ITU context such "consent" is discussed and agreed in technical terms, the positions of delegations have for obvious reasons been partly based upon *non*-technical considerations such as the protection of their national broadcasting systems. This was clear in the case of the delimitation of satellite beam areas in Europe.

It it therefore possible in certain cases, to discern some discrepancy in the positions taken by countries in the ITU context and their positions in the UN context. Similar inconsistencies can also be noted in other issues, such as spill-over.

The UN Legal Sub-Committee

At its session in 1976, the UN legal Sub-Committee reached agreement on nine principles. In certain cases the wording of these principles was subject to review in the light of the discussion on still outstanding matters which included the preamble, and the proposed principles of "consent and participation", programme content", and "unlawful/ inadmissible broadcasts".

In overall terms, however, there have been noticeable moves by delegations in the direction of the required consensus. No longer does there seem to be any opposition to the idea of adopting a set of principles, and there is an implicit agreement that such principles should be adopted in the form of a declaration and not as a convention.

After somewhat arduous negotiations, the Sub-Committee managed to agree on preliminary texts for the preamble.

In the search for agreement, moreover, the principle proposed earlier on "consent and participation" has been reformulated and renegotiated under the heading "consultation and agreements between States". Under certain circumstances, the contested proposals for principles on "programme content" and "unlawful/ inadmissible broadcasts" may be deleted altogether.

There is also an obvious wish to make an attempt at finalising the texts this year.

It has therefore been decided to follow a somewhat unusual procedure in that negotiations of substance will be undertaken at the forthcoming session of the Outer Space Committee itself which will meet in Vienna in June. However, any final agreement at this meeting can be reached only if in the meantime further efforts at finding generally acceptable texts are made; and delegations to the Vienna session have clear instructions concerning the solution of still outstanding issues.

The major outstanding issues may be summarised in terms of the scope of the intended declaration. The relevant interlocking issues concern:

- the applicability of the intended declaration to no more than direct television broadcasting via satellites;
- the applicability of the proposed principles only in the case of intentional broadcasts from one State to another; this aspect therefore also concerns the spill-over issue and the related issue of the obligation to consult.

Among the other outstanding issues that warrant mention are the question of whether there is a need to maintain principles on programme content and inadmissible broadcasts. The majority view seems to be that consensus on the central principle of consultation and agreement would in fact render unnecessary any reference to programme content and – even more – to unlawful or inadmissible broadcasts.

A further question which remains to be solved is the exact wording of the part of the preamble concerning the free dissemination of information. Disagreement centres on questions of state sovereignty.

Mention should also be made of one further question which was raised at both the ITU Conference and the UN Legal Sub-Committee: the claim for national sovereignty over the geo-stationary orbit. This issue was first mentioned by the Foreign Minister of Colombia at the UN General Assembly in 1975 and repeated in the same manner in 1976. In November 1976 a number of equatorial states met in Bogotá and issued a declaration that the equatorial states would claim national sovereignty over that part of the equatorial orbit which lies over their territories. Some, but not all, equatorial states made the same claim at the ITU Conference. Since this is not a matter to be solved in the ITU context it was not discussed but according to normal practice recorded as a statement and reservation in the Final Acts.

The question was again brought up at the UN Legal Sub-Committee. A number of delegates presented strong objections, saying that the claim was against the 1967 Outer Space Treaty. This issue should be seen in the context of the discussions concerning the delimitation of outer space (where no national property rights are recognised), in contrast to air space where, traditionally "territorial" rights have been admitted.

Even if this matter has not been solved, in no case have claims for an extension of "territorial air space" beyond an altitude of some 150-200 Km been advanced, and certainly not up to 36,000 Km.

It would seem that many countries, looking for a solution to this matter, would base their attitudes on the wording in Article 33 of the ITU Convention which states "that radio frequencies and the geo-stationary satellite orbit are limited natural resources, that they must be used efficiently and economically so that countries or groups of countries may have equitable access to both".

It was decided that these matters would be further considered, possibly at the Vienna meeting of the Outer Space Committee. • E.W.P.

European Space Agency Has Full Programme

THE LAUNCH of the first European communications satellite (postponed from 15 June to 8 September due to the NASA launcher being damaged) marks an important step forward for Europe's shared space activities. The satellite is an experiment, designed to test various technical factors before the European Space Agency goes ahead with an operational system in the 1980s.

The spacecraft is designated Orbital Test Satellite; it may be given another name when in orbit. It weighs 450 kg and will operate in the 11/14 Gigaherz frequency bands.

The launch of OTS and the earlier February meeting of ministers at the ESA council marks the coming-of-age of the European Space Agency. For many years, Europe's space activities were split between two organisations: the European Space Research Organisation (ESRO) and the European Organisation for the Development and Construction of Space Vehicle Launchers (ELDO). In May 1975, both organisations were integrated into the new European Space Agency and the new Agency was given responsibility for formulating a long-term European space policy. Its members are Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and Canada (which joined in February). Austria and Norway have observer status.

The Agency is now determining several issues that are crucial for the future of Europe's space industries and activities. The first is the extension of the current communications satellite programme from their present development and experimental phases into operational phases. The two key programmes in this area are the Orbital Test Satellite, and the Marots experimental maritime communications satellite.

The Agency also seeks approval for an initial production batch of six Ariane launchers to follow the four qualification vehicles scheduled for launching in 1979 and 1980. Funding for the development programme is at its peak this year, and

ends with the fourth test launch in late 1980. Lead time of about three years is needed, beginning next year, to move smoothly from development to production.

More long term is ESA's role in coordinating European usage of the Spacelab. Beyond this is the issue of continued development of the Spacelab so that Europe is ready to participate with the USA in future manned space activities, either with improvements to the initial Spacelab or with contributions to the development of future manned space stations.

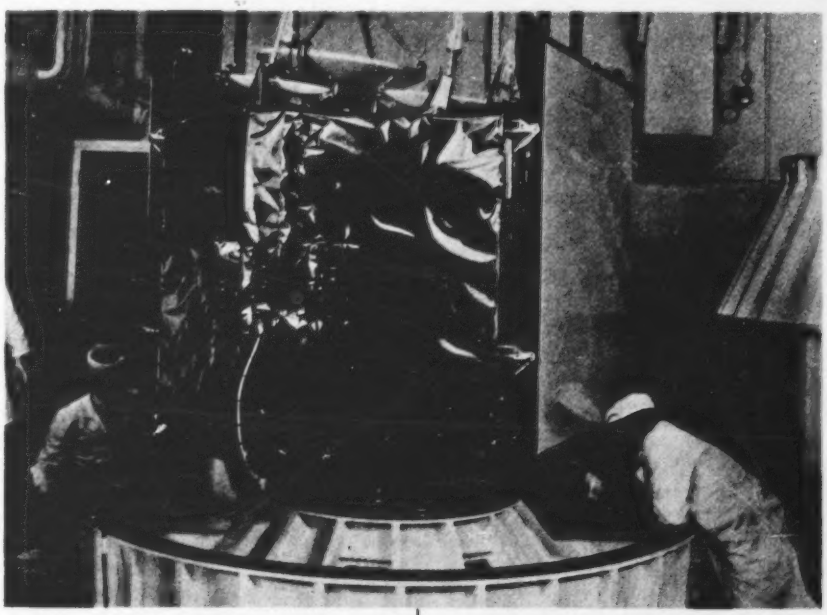
A Regional Coordinator

The orientation of ESA is slowly evolving from that of a coordinator of government-funded supra-national space research and development activities toward that of a supplier and manager of operational space systems for those same governments. This has been brought about by the development of such regions projects as communications satellites, meteorological satellites and earth resources satellites. The nature of ESA's new role is not entirely clear. Agency officials are seeking a policy decision by Western European governments on what its exact responsibilities will be.

Crucial to this re-orientation is the need to clarify the relationship between ESA and the various national space agencies of member countries, and between ESA and non-member states. In each country, contributions to individual national agencies have been declining for the past several years, while those to ESA have been increasing. The bulk of European spending on space activities now goes through ESA, rather than the national agencies. This has necessitated a redefinition of the relationship between ESA and the national agencies. It has also put ESA in a leadership role when it comes to dealing with outside agencies like NASA. Several member countries want to clarify ESA's authority in these cases.

Exporting Space Technology

More than 25% of ESA's budget is directed toward the operational communications satellites. One major objective is to make Europe self-sufficient. Members also want to put European industry on a competitive footing in Third World markets and in the international market



ESA

The OTS spacecraft

vis-a-vis, for instance, the Intelsat network. Among the goals being proposed are the production of two 12-channel European communications satellites (ECS), and the launch of the first of these in early 1980 by a McDonnell Douglas Delta 3914 launcher; the launch of the second ECS on the first available Ariane launch vehicle, with this second ECS to be kept on standby in orbit; the launch of a second Marots maritime communications satellite in late 1979 by Delta 3914 (first Marots is scheduled for launching in 1978); the development of a heavier, Ariane-class experimental communications satellite to be used for direct-broadcasting (sound and television) experimemts; and the development of an operational Ariane-class direct television broadcasting satellite based on the earlier experimental heavy satellite.

The Agency held its first Ministerial Council Meeting last February. The agenda concentrated on proposals for ESA activity in the fields of satellite communications, remote sensing, launcher production and Spacelab utilisations; the Guiana Space Centre; the Agency's likely resources 1978-80; and relations between the ESA and operational space systems and national organisations. The Ministers or their representatives of all the Agency's eleven members attended, and during the two-day meeting a twelfth country, Canada, was voted in as a full member.

The twin themes of the meeting were money and the question of who-does-what.

The Agency's first annual budget was about £175 million. In 1976, this rose to about £250 million. About one-third covers the obligatory, mainly scientific, programme; the remainders covers optional projects such as the communications satellites. The percentage contributions to the obligatory programme are Belgium, 3.89; Denmark, 2.26; France, 21.20; Germany (FR), 25.25; Italy, 13.23; Netherlands, 5.24; Spain, 4.44; Sweden, 4.46; Switzerland, 3.56; United Kingdom, 16.47.

For 1977, the Agency asked for 478.8 million accounting units (MAU, about £296 million). At the February Council meeting the agency was asking for 1396.2 million accounting units (about £860 million) for the next three years to cover the Ariane launcher, Spacelab and several other expensive projects that are now reaching their peak. It was also hopeful that the Agency's funding after 1980 would not suffer the traumatic drop that so depressed NASA after the Apollo programme ended. The meeting ended with no countervailing resolution on the overall budget which means, in effect, that it will be accepted. However, the proposed budget for the optional projects which members can choose whether or not to

support (which includes OTS and Marots) was referred back for further discussion. ESA had proposed 235m MAU but the Germany representative had suggested 200m MAU as a more appropriate figure. The Agency's Director General agreed to submit a new budget by July.

The second issue facing the Council was the question of who does what – more specifically, the demarcation between the Agency as an independent European body and the members' own national space agencies. The French and Germans are most concerned, since their space industries are by far the largest.

The Council went some way to solve both issues by strengthening ESA's central political role. It approved two resolutions giving ESA the authority to maintain contacts with potential users and allowing it to agree contracts with third-parties for launchers; and confirming ESA's responsibility for the design development and operation of "pre-operational" (eg, experimental) systems.

The Modular OTS

The OTS satellite is the first European communications satellite. Previous European satellites have been "scientific" projects like the 1976 Ultra-Violet Explorer, and the Sun-Earth Explorer that is currently studying the magnetosphere.

The entire European Communication Satellite (ECS) project is quite different. It is planned to answer the needs both of the Conférence Européene des Postes et Télécommunications (the coordinating body of telecommunications authorities) and the European Broadcasting Union (the association of broadcasting authorities). It will be used for telephone, telegraph and telex as well as for television.

Telecommunication forcasts predict that by 1980 the satellite system will have to cope with 5,000 simultaneous calls, rising to 20,000 by 1990. The EBU has asked for the permanent allocation of two TV channels.

The Orbital Test Satellite (OTS) is the first spacecraft in the ECS project. The Agency is aiming at a fully-operational satellite communications system by the 1980s. The OTS will have six SHF antennas: one Spotbeam, three Eurobeam "A" and two Eurobeam "B". Its coverage will include Iceland, the Middle East, North Africa, the Azores and Madeira.

The OTS is the first of four ESA projects for communication satellites. The others are custom-designed for maritime communications, air traffic control and meteorology.

The basic OTS spacecraft has been made in a modular way in order to facilitate these additional projects, and any others that may be agreed. Its multi-purpose service module carries all the support functions, while the separate communication module carries the various payloads.

The version designed for maritime communication (MAROTS), for instance, uses the basic OTS service module with a slightly different communications module. It will be launched early next year, and will complement the rather similar US maritime system, in accordance with the conventions agreed within the Intergovernmental Maritime Consultative Organisations.

Another variation, the experimental AEROSAT, is a part of the preparations for the implementation in the mid-1980s of a worldwide operational satellite system of air traffic control. This system is being coordinated by the International Civil Aviation Organisation within the framework of an agreement signed by the US Federal Aviation Administration, the Canadian government and ESA. The two satellites will be launched over the Atlantic in early 1980. Some of their capacity in the first few years will probably be used for broadcasting, earth resources, etc.

Preparing for Ariane

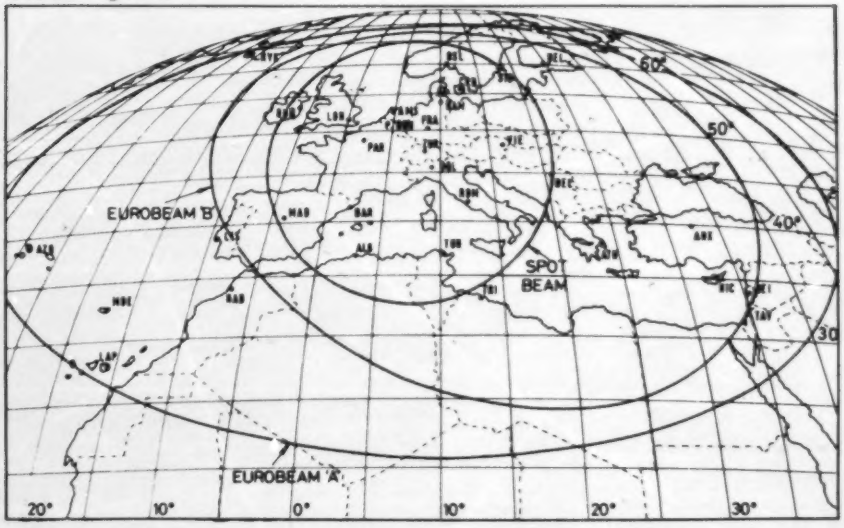
All ESA satellites are launched by NASA, either cooperatively or for a fee. The European Space Operations Centre at Darmstadt normally takes over full control within hours and is responsible, usually some 36 hours after launch, for transferring a satellite into its geo-synchronous orbit.

This dependence on NASA, however, is regarded as temporary, at best, and the Agency is currently developing the French Ariane project into a fully operational European launcher. The Ariane can lift satellites with an in-orbit weight of 800 kg. The first test launch is scheduled for the French Guiana Space Centre at Kourou in 1979.

Opposition to the Ariane, however, was recently and most firmly manifested at the ESA's ministerial-level meeting in Paris in February. The United Kingdom refused to participate and several other countries asked for more time to consider.

The Agency has an administrative centre near UNESCO in Paris employing 250 people and a research unit, ESTEC, in Noordwijk in the Netherlands employing about 900. A further 250 people are spread between the space operations centre (ESOC) in Darmstadt, Germany, and tracking stations in Belgium, Spain, Germany and Alaska. A small office in Rome contains the Agency's Space Documentation Service. • J.A.H.

OTS Coverage Area



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Books

ARD: 1950-1975 (ARD, Leopoldstrasse 10, 8000 Munchen 40; price on application) edited by Hans Bausch. Speeches and discussions of the ARD seminars held in Konigstein last May; topics include the history of ARD, the finance of broadcasting, technical matters, the allocation of long and medium-wave frequencies, the relationship between film and television, and broadcasting and the public.

Bibliografia: Investigaciones en Comunicacion Para el Desarollo Rural en America Latin (Bibliography on Communications Research on Rural Development in Latin America) (published jointly by International Development Research Centre, Bogota, and International Development Research Centre, Box 8500, 60 Queen Street, Canada; $1.00) by Luis Ramiro Beltran, Guillermo Isaza Velez and Fernando Ramirez Pardo. 490 titles, cross-referenced by author, publisher, topic and country; with an appendix of 20 other bibliographies.

Broadcasting and Football (Nederlandse Omroep Stichting, PO Box 10, Hilversum; free) by H. Th. J.F. Van Maarseveen and W.J. Slagter. A report to the NOS Board of Directors on the legal aspects of the relation between NOS and the Dutch Football Association. The report centres on the question of whether NOS's various levels of coverage of Dutch football matches constitute "news" (and should be generally "free" to NOS) and how far the Football Association should be allowed to charge a fee. The two authors, both professors of law at Erasmus University, throw a great deal of light on the issue of "paying for news", discussed here within the context of the Dutch legal system but with many more general implications.

Children and Television (Collier Macmillan, 35 Red Lion Square, London WC1; ISBN 02 977290 7; £7.50) edited by Ray Brown. A collection of new and reprinted papers, culled from Europe and (to a lesser extent) the USA, and including most of the sociological and psychological theories and ideas of interest both to academics and TV practitioners.

Communications in The Pacific (East-West Centre, Honolulu, Hawaii; free) edited by Jim Richstad and Daniel Lerner. A report on the EWC conference held in 1975; with reports on "traditional communications modes"; "Pacific profiles" and the "modern media" including newspapers, broadcasting and PEACESAT, the Pacific operation of the ATS-1 satellite for educational purposes.

Communication, Social Organisation, Human Resources (Committee for Future Oriented Research, Sveavagen 166, 14 tr, S-113 46 Stockholm; price on application). A stimulating collection of interim research reports on the "human situation in the information and communications society".

Communication Yearbook (International Communication Association, Balcones Research Centre, 10100 Burnet Road, Austin, Texas 78758; $20.00) edited by Brent D. Reuben. Research-orientated, with a 600-page summary of communication topics, current research etc.

Community Control of Local Radio (CCC/DC. 76.87E, Council of Europe, Strasbourg; free) by Peter M. Lewis. A study of the community content in and control of three local radio stations (one BBC, one UK commercial and one community-orientated station in Amsterdam), and the underlying assumptions and goals that govern the practice of the professionals who have charge of the facilities.

A Critical Appraisal (Federation of Australian Radio Broadcasters, 8 Glen Street, Milson Point 2061, Sydney; ISBN 0 908043 031; free). A critical appraisal of the recent Green Report on the structure of Australian broadcasting, by the Federation of Australian Radio Broadcasters. The Federation is "greatly disappointed by many aspects of the Report", which it sees as "cavalier and immature". Its main conclusion is that officers of the department of Posts and Telecommunications "made every effort to aggregate excessive powers in their Department of Posts and Telecommunications".

Educational Broadcasting in Australia 1932-75 (Australian Broadcasting Commission, Box 487, GPO, Sydney 2001; free). Brief but highly informative.

Eighth Congress of the International Organisation of Journalists (IOJ, Prague 1, Parizska 9, Czechoslovakia). A report of the IOJ's 8th Congress held in Helsinki in September 1976; with a detailed history, comments on development and future tasks of the IOJ and the texts of several resolutions, documents, reports, etc.

Families Without Television (Research Report 3, Media Centre, La Trobe University, Bundoora, Victoria 3083; Aus $2.50) by Patricia Edgar and Ray Crooke. Study of 298 families in Victoria, Australia who decided not to have television sets in their homes.

Fernsehen: Ein Medium sieht Sich Selbst (Television Looks at Itself) (v. Hase & Koehler Verlag, Mainz; ISBN 3 7758 0919 8; DM 48) edited by Werner Brussan, Dieter-Stolte, Richard Wisser. A festschrift for Karl Holzamer, Intendant of the Zweites Deutsches Fernsehen since its establishment in 1962. The contributors are journalists, broadcasters, politicians, theologians, etc. Together, they provide a comprehensive account of the political, managerial, legislative and programme-making aspects of West German television – particularly, of course, ZDF.

The Financing of Community and Public Access Channels on Cable Television Networks in Member Countries of the Council of Europe (CCC/DC(76)97-E, Council of Europe, Strasbourg; free) by the International Institute of Communications. A survey of the current state of "community" cable television in Europe. A much more detailed and comprehensive report of the developments mentioned briefly in InterMedia, Vol. 5, No. 1.

Integrated Rural Development and Communication (AMIC, 39 Newton Road, Singapore 11; S $4.00 inside Asia, S $6.00 outside Asia) by Philip H. Coombs and others. Several views on using a systems approach to integrate rural development and communication.

International Communication Policy and Flow: A Selected Annotated Bibliography (East-West Centre, 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii; price on application) edited by Jim Richstad and Jackie Bowen. This bibliography was selected for the EWC conference on Communication Policy held last March. It is selective (the editors ask for additions, comments, etc, for future editions) but the annotations are detailed.

Die Konstruktion von Realitat in den Nachrichtenmedien (The Construction of Reality in News Media) (Verlag Karl Aber Freiburg, Munich; ISBN 3 495 47331 9; DM 27.00) by Winifred Schulz. An analysis of news broadcasts in Germany, a classification of content and an interpretation of reasons why certain issues are preferred.

Mass Media Violence and Society (Paul Elek, 54-58 Caledonian Road, London N1; ISBN 0 236 17754 0; £4.50) by Dennis Howitt and Guy Cumberbatch. General survey of research into mass media, violence and society; the authors argue that the "mass media do not have any significant effect on the levels on violence in society".

Mass Communication Research: Current Documentation (Press Research Centre, Rynek Glowny 23, 31-000 Krakow; $10.00 per volume). The fifth volume contains more abstracts of "publications on mass communication research and propaganda in the Central European Socialist countries". Each publication is summarised on a separate A5 sheet. The result is a comprehensive and illuminating documentation of central European thinking and research into mass communications.

Media (Library Association Public Libraries Group Readers' Guide, Library Association, Divisonal Library, Timber Street, Chippenham, Wiltshire; ISBN 0 85365 419 0; 60p) by Barrie I. MacDonald. Selective bibliography; very useful on UK publications but erratic in its choice of non-UK material.

New Perspectives in International Communication (East-West Centre, 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii; price on application) edited by Jim Richstad. Papers presented at the EWC Conference on Communication Policy held last March. They focus on the presumed negative impact of "imported" communications; the

difficulty in developing national resources to the level where a balanced two-way flow of information is possible; and several issues of international communication. Authors include Wilbur Schraam, E. Lloyd Sommerlad, Herbert I. Schiller, Lakshmana Rao, Edward Ploman, Tapio Varis, John Bystrom, etc.

Perception and Information (Methuen, 11 New Fetter Lane, London EC4; ISBN 0416 82030 9; 90p) by Paul J. Barber and Davide Legge. Part of Methuen's 'Essential Psychology' series; discusses human perception within a framework of theoretical and experimental psychology which treats man as a processor of information.

The Plug-In Drug: Television, Children and the Family (Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10022; ISBN 0 670 56160 6; $8.95) by Marie Winn. A critical account of the effect that *watching* TV has on children. Ms Winn suggests that the fact of the viewing experience is much more significant than the specific content of TV programmes. She points out that watching TV becomes the child's dominant way of learning and taking-in data, with many regrettable social and psychological results. She suggests the best response – if the child is to develop as a rational, active human – is to stop watching television. Her book is one of the most provocative and informed of a number of publications on this theme.

Politics in Public Service Advertising on Television (Praeger Special Studies, 200 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017; ISBN 0 275 23880 6; £10.05) by David Paletz, Roberta E. Pearson, Donald L. Willis. The political aspects of US Public Service Announcements (known as PSAs). PSAs are TV, radio and print announcements sponsored by nonprofit agencies and broadcast or published by TV/radio stations and publishers without charge. This book deals only with PSAs on TV. The authors conclude that PSAs "depict societal and individual problems as unrelated to politics and propose non-political problems" and that PSAs "promote a deceptive societal consensus; encourage the questionable feeling that governmental and established nonprofit agencies are instrumentally capable, deserving of affect and support; and, instead of political activity, promote pseudo-participation".

Radio in the 80's (Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, Box 500, Terminal A, Toronto M5W 1E6, Ontario; £3.00) by Jean Bruce. A synthesis of the papers, presentations and discussions of the Radio in the 80's symposium organised by the CBC and the European Broadcasting Union in Ottawa last June. The author has arranged the material under theme headings; the result is a handy, stimulating description of the possible futures of radio.

A Sourcebook on Radio's Role in Development (Information Bulletin No. 7, The Clearinghouse on Development Communication, 1414 22nd Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20037; price on application). A bibliography of 600 titles with abstracts.

The Sponsored Film (Focal Press, Hastings House, 10 East 40th Street, New York 10016; ISBN 0 8038 6734 4; £7.00) by Walter J. Klein. The author is a veteran producer of sponsored films; this introductory account draws heavily on his experience and ideas and is likely to become a standard work, in spite of being restricted to the USA.

The Telecommunications-Transportation Trade-off: Options for Tomorrow (John Wiley, New York and London; ISBN 0 471 01507 5; $29.15, £16.90) by Jack M Niles, F. Roy Carlsen, Jnr., Paul Gray and Gerhard J. Hanneman. A comprehensive analysis, with several case-studies, of the substitution of telecommunications for transportation. The main focus is the public policy aspects of substitution; as such the book is strongly US-orientated with many explicit and implicit assumptions about the relevant issues.

Télé-Niger: Adapting an Electronic Medium to a Rural African Context (Information Bulletin No-8, The Clearinghouse on Development Communications, 1414 22nd Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20037; price on application) by Theresa Silverman and Emile G. McAnany. Summary with comments of the 1971 **La Television Scolaire du Niger 1964**: 1971, the official report of one of the most famous experiments in educational television in rural areas. The authors contextualisation, and a brief "up-date", make this most useful to those who are not able to read the original French-language report.

Trennung von Nachricht und Meinung (The Differences between Facts and Comment) (Verlag Karl Aber Freiburg, Munich: ISBN 3 495 47340 8; DM 36.00) by Klaus Schonbach. A study of how journalists select issues, people, events, etc, for news broadcasts and reports, with special emphasis on the different nature of, and borderline between "facts" and comment/opinion/"meaning".

Towards the Public Dividend: A Report on Satellite Communications and the Public Interest Satellite Association (PISA, 55 West 44th Street, New York, N.Y. 10056; price on application) by Walter McGraw. Brief but informative statement about opportunities for using satellites in the USA for "public interest" and "consumer" purposes; includes a list of most current and planned satellite systems.

Video: State of the Art (Working Paper, Rockefeller Foundation, Publications Office, 1133 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y. 10036; free) by Johanna Gill. Brief but fairly comprehensive summary of video art in the USA, with more detailed notes on "Selected People and Situations"; apart from one comment on Toronto, the paper ignores non-US activity.

Periodicals

access (National Citizens Committee for Broadcasting, 1028 Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington, D.C. 20036; $1.25 single copy). Starting in February, access became a monthly, 8-page magazine concentrating on US broadcasting regulatory briefs and news. The February issue has a useful article "The Hidden Network" on the "vast network of positions that together can determine the shape and direction of communication policy decisions". access's decision to reduce its size and frequency is regrettable (if understandable) because through the previous format the NCCB was able to reach a wide US and overseas audience; but the new access is still worth reading.

Antennes (Ministere des Communications, 675 Boulevard Sainte-Cyrille est, Tour G, Quebec G1A 1GS; free). French-language, illustrated quarterly on Quebecois media, published by the provincial government.

Communications and Development Review (Iran Communications and Development Institute, PO Box 33-183, Tadjrish, Teheran 19; price on application). A welcome quarterly review published by the new ICDI in Teheran (which is continuing the work of the NIRT Prospective Planning Project). The first issue Spring includes articles on the relationship of communication and development; problems of development in Iran's West Azarbaijan province; Iranian cinema; and television and its effects; as well as media comment and book reviews.

The NFE Exchange (Non-Formal Education Information Centre, Institute for International Studies in Education, 513 Erickson Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824, USA; free). The March issue contains a useful bibliography of 81 journals and newsletters on non-formal education in the context of rural development.

Unilag Communications Review (Department of Mass Communication, University of Lagos; 3.50 naira single copy). New, useful, quarterly review of Nigerian communication media. The first January/March issue includes articles on key Nigerian journalists; the Nigerian Ministry of Information; NBC News; and media research; as well as a book review and comment.

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Can Hollywood Pioneers and Experimental Film-Makers Provide Lessons for Developing Countries?

THE IDEA OF going back to the early days of Hollywood for examples of film-making that might serve in a rural African community in the 1970s may seem astonishing and suspect.

But convincing reasons for using the Hollywood experience are put forward in a most useful new Mass Media Manual published by the Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung: 'Low-Cost Film and TV Production in Developing Countries' by Dietrich Berwanger (Koelner Strasse 149, Bad Godesberg, D5200 Bonn). The book is typical of the new approach towards developmental communications that encourages communications to draw on the entire range of practical film and video-making – and especially low-cost basic operations – in order to understand and make more efficient their own communications efforts.

Two models that are relevant are early Hollywood and – in extreme contrast – the activities of today's independent experimental film and video-makers.

Dietrich Berwanger concentrates on the former. He suggests that "at the beginning of the century, film producers in the United States were faced with the same problems as many developing countries today. They had limited funds for investment and low production budgets; they had neither experienced film actors nor experienced technicians; and they had neither that minimum of reliable technical equipment that is absolutely a matter of course even in the smallest TV stations today, nor did they have a large number of cinemas in which they could show their films". He draws several specific parallels.

They had "*low production budgets.* Shooting time was reduced to just a few days through exact planning, the limited number of locations and settings, and the use of long continuous sequences .

"*Editing* was restricted to just a few days because long sequences were simply joined together, uncut, as they came out of the camera, and it was only occasionally that cuts were made and more rapid changes of image inserted so as to achieve a special effect".

They had "no *actors* with film experience. They employed either laymen who had not yet taken on the exaggerated dramatic gestures of the stage actors of the time, or they employed actors who played a stereotyped character in every film rather than embodying new characters from film to film" (eg, Charlie Chaplin).

There were no experienced *technicians* . "They made good their lack of experience through improvisation, and learnt their trade whilst shooting films. Directors worked as cameramen; cameramen helped with the script; and scriptwriters performed in front of the cameras".

"They developed *cinemas* by setting up simple projection equipment in existing halls, in restaurant back-rooms, at fairs, and under the open sky, or supplied projectors for a small sum to the owners of these rooms and fairs".

Production methods from the early history of the American film cannot, of course, be completely copied today.

The independent film and video groups that exist – often precariously – in many western societies provide another model. It is dangerous, of course, to assume too many similarities. In his book Dietrich Berwanger says that although such groups have developed "new and artistically ambitious forms and techniques of low-cost production, little use could be made here of such procedures since that form of low-cost production developed on the fringes of a highly specialised film and TV industry and many respects lives from making skilful use of the latter for their own purposes".

The point is important. Production methods, finance and routines must be seen in context of the country's entire range of cultural, economic and social matters.

However, many of the ideas and technical innovations of these independent film-makers and video-makers can made a supportive and significant contribution to Third World film-making activities, fledgling TV stations, educational audio-visual units and other groups.

The technical similarities, as Dietrich Berwanger suggests, would not merit much attention in themselves.

Much more important are the shared strategies of film-makers and video-makers – in both "developed" and "developing" countries – towards their own concepts of film/TV professionalism and towards their audiences. (It may be significant that in the developed workd it is the perception of the independent film-makers that often most precisely challenges the notion that his society has achieved a sort of static developed equilibrium).

Is it a startling thought – that both Mack Sennett and other veterans of early Hollywood and today's most innovative film and video groups may have something to offer the producers and directors of low-cost film and TV operations in developing countries?

It is possible. The producers and directors themselves would be rather less surprised than their accompanying politicians and academics. As Dietrich Berwanger says, "politicians, academics and development planners, on the one side, and the practitioners of film and television, on the other, know too little of each other's views, knowledge, problems and potential". His book is a valiant attempt, which deserves success, to fill this gap.

It is vital that the "politicians, academics and development planners" who deal with film and video know not just a little but a great deal about the various techniques in production and the aesthetic issues that are the daily concerns of the director, cameramen, the sound recordist and the editor. •

J.A.H.